



NAMIBIA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

**SCHOOL OF HUMAN SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION**

**A CORPUS LINGUISTIC STUDY OF THE NATIVISATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AT THE NAMIBIA
UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**

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AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS**

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my loving parents, my father Mr. Shali Wilnauman Kamati, and my mother Ms. Hilya Nangula Ngonga, for their relentless love, support and inspiration throughout my life journey. Know that your hard work and the dedication you put into everything you do has been transferred to me and given me courage to do to my best.

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Finally, I would like to leave the remaining space in memory of Papa Charles Richard Kremer Schmitt JNR (1944-2013) a brilliant and loving man that put others first and believed in my dream. "To soar like an eagle".

I thank you.

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Abstract

The major purpose of this thesis was to examine the nativisation of the English language in Namibia with a specific study conducted at the Namibian University of Science and Technology during the 2018 academic year. The 13 official indigenous languages in Namibia have an impact in the nativisation process. The English language in Namibia has been nativised and made local to such an extent that it is used in official settings.

The study was guided by the World Englishes model formulated by Kachru in the early 1980s, which allocates the presence of English into three concentric circles. Namibian English, called (Namlish), one of the non-native varieties of English, has reached the nativisation phase (Schneider, 2003, 2007) where lexicon-grammatical restructuring mostly occurs. This study sought to explore the processes of nativisation and how this new variant has had an effect on standard English and different linguistic levels. The methodology involved a generation of corpus of words, phrases and sentences derived from participants obtained through the International Corpus of English (ICE) sampling methodology with a focus on Namibian students only. Data was mostly composed through casual recordings, and transcripts of conversations and interviews, which constituted the oral corpus. Findings gathered from the data analysed showed that most students use nativised words, phrases and sentences. Triggered by the inference of the mother tongue and borrowing, code-switching and code-mixing of the English language has become common and acceptable. However, the nativisation of a language is a process; therefore, more corpus studies are needed to explore this language phenomenon. It is believed that this thesis will arouse the desire for an in-depth research in the area of nativisation of the English language in Namibia by other future researchers.

Keywords: bilingual; borrowing; code-switching; code-mixing; corpus study; indigenous; linguistics; localisation; morphology; native/non-native; nativisation; phonology, semantic; world Englishes

Certification

I declare that Nancy Natse Kamati, from the Department of Communication at the Namibia University of Science and Technology, Windhoek, Namibia carried out this work.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

BE	British English
BE	British English
BSAfE	Black South African English
ESL	English as a Second Language
GhE	Ghanaian English
ICE	International Corpus of English
Namlish	Namibian English
NUST	Namibia University of Science and Technology
SBE	Standard British English
SEUK	Standard English of the United Kingdom (Tongue, 1979)
UNAM	University of Namibia
ZimE	Zimbabwean English

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1 Preamble

This chapter looks at the background of the study, the definition of nativisation, the problem statement and research objectives. The chapter also dwells on the significance of the study and the limitations of the study. Mencken (1919) asserts “a living language is like a man suffering incessantly from small haemorrhages, and what it needs above all else is constant transactions of new blood from other tongues. The day the gates go up, that day it begins to die” (p. 208).

1.2 Background of the study

Babbitt predicted in 1907, that there would be 1.1 billion English users spread all around the world by the year 2000 (McRum, Cran & MacNeil, 1986, p. 336). Surprisingly this prediction is now a living reality. The English spoken by native speakers is now around 380 million while about 300 million speakers use English as a second language, and about 100 million speakers use English as a foreign language. According to Schneider (2011), English as first language (L1) countries make up around 350 and 380 million of the speakers, whereas global learners of English vary between 500 million and 1500 million (p. 56), whilst Crystal (2008) even estimates that the number of ‘speakers’ of English might be somewhere around 2 billion by today. Arguably this number can vary simply because the precision of the notion of ‘speak English’ is difficult to determine. One can also conclude that the English language is no longer a “core group nation’ language; English has therefore mutated into a global language, used for various purposes where it fits well.

When English is used in countries with different social, cultural and linguistic makeup, new linguistic features begin to develop and become widespread, and systematic. This gives rise to non-native varieties of English (Platt, Weber & Ho, 1983). These varieties are different in their phonology, syntax, and semantics, as opposed to the established native-speaker varieties. This variety of English is also found in Namibia and on that note, it is worth observing that “It was Hugo Schuchardt who initiated a study on language contact which examines the properties of varieties of English in India back in 1891” (Mesthrie & Bhatt 2008, p. 11). It is only in the 1980s that comparative studies led to the emergence of a subfield called ‘World Englishes’, thanks to the work of many scholars, one of whom is Braj Kachru.

Schmied (1990) designed the ICE for East African and found it a challenge in identifying the types of speakers to include in the corpus, especially in terms of their language proficiency and language backgrounds.

Language and communication are an interdependent discipline within the human species as a language cannot exist without the essence of communication. At independence, Namibia chose English as its main official language although Namibia had no distinctly long history of English as a colonial language and only a few citizens spoke it as their first language (Oishimaya, 2017). The decision has been well supported and there is an expectation among Namibians that learning English as early as possible is important because it will open many doors to the future and enhance fluency. The government implemented the decision through a language policy for schools, that learners should be taught in their home languages from grades 1-3 and switch to English from grade 4 onwards (The language policy for schools in Namibia, 2003). This implementation is still a challenge to many Namibians who are required to master the English language in formal settings, without diluting it with words/phrases to suit the culture and local languages of Namibia. It has been observed that Afrikaans has a lot of influence on how most Namibians articulate or express themselves, and in that sense, Dabrowska (2017) states that:

Due to the diversity in Namibia and a 2 million population, the elites being of former European (Afrikaner, German, British, Portuguese) descent, while the lower strata represent the African population, primarily of the Ovambo tribe, further followed by Kavango, Damara, Herero, Nama, and Himba tribes as well as a number of smaller ones, like Mbukushu in the north-east, some descendants of the Bushmen (San) tribes, and finally representatives of mixed races (Stell, 2009, 2014), it is expected that the level of the command of English will vary across the social strata, which will be reflected in the samples of the language (p. 68).

Therefore, nativisation according to Kachru, (1981), are the is systematic changes to the formal features of English at all linguistic levels, which results from the use of English in new sociocultural settings, in contact with other languages, and the absence of native speakers of English. It was gradually extended to variation studies where it refers to the adaptation which a language may experience when it is used in a different cultural and social context. Besides the term 'nativisation', scholars also used different terms for the same process such as 'acculturation' (Stanlaw, 1982), 'indigenisation' (Richards, 1982) or 'hybridisation' (Pandharipande, 1987, p. 149). While some scholars

view the term 'nativised' as a synonym for 'indigenised' Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008, p. 11) suggest a distinction be made between the two terms.

However, in the context of this study, the researcher uses Kachru's (1985) definition of nativisation refers to "the changes which English has undergone as a result of its contact with various languages in diverse cultural and geographical settings in the Outer Circle of English is taken" (Kachru, 1985). This language is inevitably adopted by indigenous communities through the process of adaptation and innovations from indigenous cultures (Kachru, 1990, p. 20). In other words, "through nativisation, the English language is made our own" (Schneider, 2011, p. 4).

1.3 Statement of the problem

Several studies have been conducted on the phenomenon impact of the English language in Namibia, especially in the field of education. English is the official language in Namibia, although this has only been the case since independence in 1990. Before independence, English and Afrikaans both held official language status, while in reality all communication was conducted in Afrikaans on an official basis. According to StudyCountry.com, there are just under 30 national languages and dialects spoken by the inhabitants of Namibia, many of which influence how English is now spoken.

Most Namibians who cannot converse fluently in English claim that they speak "Namlsh", but then how did this claim come about? With this information at hand, one can argue that to develop what Namibians claim as 'Namlsh', as a variety of English, one has to develop the orthography and standardisation of 'Namlsh'. Regions and towns around Namibia have their unique way of saying certain expressions/words/phrases, these are English varieties that are unique to every region. Varieties of English used in most parts of the African continent, along with those spoken in Asia and the Pacific region, have for the last 30 years or so been classified by linguists as new varieties of English, or New Englishes (Kachru 1985, 1992; McArthur 1998; Kirkpatrick 2007; Mesthrie, Bhatt 2008; Jenkins 2009, 2014). Studying the nativisation of the English language in Namibia is necessary to identify and describe what constitutes the English language spoken in Namibia.

Various research work has been conducted in the field of linguistics specifically in the World Englishes (WE) phenomenon. Three concentric circles paradigm designed by Kachru in the early 1980's is now one of the popular frameworks that explain the development of English as an international language, where it is categorised according to its usage across the globe. The circle reveals the estimated number

of users in each circle and it shows that the majority of English speakers are the non-English native speakers. Namibia now forms a part of that statistics because, English is used as an official language and medium of instruction, however only a fraction of Namibia's are English native speakers.

The different indigenous languages have significantly affected the English language spoken at NUST, and the rest of the country. NUST being the high educational institution, one expects students to use formal English in and outside of the classroom, unfortunately this is not the case. NUST students use informal and localised English outside the classroom amongst each other. With this background, new English terms and phrases have been formed to suit society and this is often referred to as "Namlish" according to the students. For one to comprehend this nativised terms/phrases one need to share the same speech community. When gauging Namibian English against Standard English, there are significant differences, which bring about the question of the "Namibian English" status. Scholars such as Busari (2014), Dabrowska (2015), Frydman (2011), Harris (2011) and Stell (2014), examined the effects English language in Namibian has on the learners and students, and they also explored the systematic examination in the English language in Namibia however there is minimal focus on the corpus study of the Nativisation of this systematic phenomenon caused by the indigenous languages. Therefore, this research has attempted to investigate the current English language variant and how it has developed as a distinct variety, including the effects of the indigenous languages has on the Standard English at NUST and if Namibians can confidently say that spoken English in Namibia is a special Namibian variant.

1.4 Research objectives

The main objective of this study was to examine the nativisation of the English language at the Namibian University of Science and Technology. Specifically, the research was guided by the following specific research objectives, namely to:

- investigate the process of the nativisation of the English language at the Namibian University of Science and Technology;
- evaluate the various levels of the nativisation of the English language at NUST, and
- investigate the effects of language contact at NUST concerning Standard English

1.5 The significance of the research

This research studied the current English language status in Namibia where several people communicate in non-standard English. This type of English language can also be referred to as a “nativised English” which is now commonly used in Namibia and which has penetrated its way into even formal settings such as classrooms, interviews, advertisements, etc. The significance of the research is to identify the attributes to nativisation and if this type of English can earn a formal status, that is to say, it is a Namibian version of English as people now call it “Namlish”, although it does not have the orthographic model as yet. Therefore, this work can benefit English teachers, book editors, English curriculum makers, learners, and English language researchers. English students are the main beneficiaries because they study the English language in schools and at tertiary institutions. English language policymakers can benefit by reviewing the language policy including the Namibian English standard. This research sought to answer questions as to whether Namibians can confidently say Namlish is an “English variant” that is unique in Namibia since it is understood when spoken by Namibians. With this research, it might ease the teachers' and learners' burden of being penalised when using it.

1.6 The delimitation of the study

This corpus-based study was conducted at one of Namibia's higher learning institution “NUST” during the 2018-year calendar. The institution was selected due its mixed ethnic groups of students and this would lead to reliable findings.

1.7 The limitations of the study

The study had its own limitations and the major one being that it required a longer research period, it was limited to Namibian students only and that it could only be conducted at one institution, in this case NUST. However, the institution was selected due to its mixed ethnic groups of students and the researcher hoped to attain empirically sound findings. The number of conversations and audios were recorded, both primary and secondary sources and a review of different articles, journals and other related work were utilised. The limited time frame acted as a limit to its exploration.

1.8 Definition of key concepts

Table 1.

Bilingualism	An ability of an individual or the members of a community to use two languages effectively (Nordquist, 2018).
Creole	A stable natural language developed from a mixture of different languages. Vernacular languages that developed in colonial European plantation settlements in the 17th and 18th centuries as a result of contact between groups that spoke mutually unintelligible languages. In contrast to pidgin, creole is often defined as a pidgin that has become the first language of a new generation of speakers (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 61-63).
Indigenise	To alter something so as to make it fit in with the local culture (www.collinsdictionary.com).
Lingua franca	Any of the various languages used as common or commercial tongues among peoples of diverse speech, adopted as a common language between speakers whose native languages are different (English Oxford Living Dictionaries).
Monolingual	Someone who speaks only one language, or something that is available in only one language (www.yourdictionary.com).
Morphology	The study of words, how they are formed and their relationship to other words in the same language. The study of the internal structure of words and forms a core part of linguistic study today (http://all-about-linguistics.group.shef.ac.uk).
Nativisation	Transfer of logic of local languages to English. The process of adapting a loan word to the phonetic structure of the native language (English Oxford Living Dictionaries).
Pidgin	An auxiliary language that has come into existence through the attempts by the speakers of two different languages to communicate and that is primarily a simplified form of one of the languages, with a reduced vocabulary and grammatical structure and considerable variation in pronunciation. This is sometimes defined as any simplified or broken form of a language, especially when used for communication between speakers of different languages. Pidgin was first recorded in the period 1875-1880. A

	pidgin is a language with no native speakers: it is no one's first language but is a contact language (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 61-63).
Language contact	Is the social and linguistic phenomenon by which speakers of different languages (or different dialects of the same language) interact with one another, leading to a transfer of linguistic features (Nordquist, 2018).
Phonology	Phonology is the study of the patterns of sounds in a language and across languages. Put more formally, phonology is the study of the categorical organisation of speech sounds in languages; how speech sounds are organised in the mind and used to convey meaning. Phonology can be related to many linguistic disciplines, including psycholinguistics, cognitive science, sociolinguistics and language acquisition (www.AllAboutLinguistics.com).
Syntax	Grammatical structure of sentences. The format in which words and phrases are arranged to create sentences is called syntax (www.writingexplained.org/syntax).
A register	Is a language used for a specific function rather than by a specific group (Mollin, 2006b, p. 51).
Code switching	The alternate use of two or more languages or language varieties by bilinguals for communicative purposes (Gardner-Chloros, 2009. p. 202).
Dialect	A variety (or varieties) of a specific language that differs from related forms in vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation (Southerland and Katamba as cited in O'Grady et al. 1996, p. 565).
New Englishes	Varieties of English that are developing and have developed around the world in countries and communities where it is not an indigenous language, but where it has attained official status and is rapidly developing as an L1 among large sections of these communities (Crystal, 2008, p. 327).
Speech community	A term in sociolinguistics and linguistic anthropology that is used to describe a group of people who share the same language, speech characteristics, and ways of interpreting communication. Speech communities may be large regions like an urban area with a

	common, distinct accent or small units like families and friends (think of a nickname for a sibling). They help people define themselves as individuals and community members and identify others (Nordquist, 2018).
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CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the literature review of the nativisation of the English language in different countries, especially focusing on the South African literature and other related topics. It is also within this chapter that the researcher shows how other researchers have defined the concept of nativisation of the English language and how this has affected its standard. The theoretical framework that informed the study is explained and justified.

2.2 Review of the related literature

According to the Ethnologue languages of the World (n.d), there are five main language families in Namibia; Bantu, Indo-European, Khoe-kwadi, Kx'a and Tuu. However, the most dominant are the European colonial languages, namely English, German and Afrikaans (based on Dutch). The most widely-spoken are the Bantu languages and within the Namibian ethnic groups, the Oshiwambo language is spoken as a mother tongue by the majority of the population. The third language family is that of the Khoe languages. These are the largest of the non-Bantu language families, are indigenous to southern Africa, and are spoken by the descendants of the hunting/gathering and herding populations that are generally considered indigenous to Namibia. These indigenous language families have an influence on the Namibians' official language, especially on spoken communication. Namibians seem to have created a new English variant that has recreated English words into this new type of English order to effectively communicate to each other. These newly formed words differ from region to region and they are only understood by a person who is familiar with that region's language or has been exposed to the local language. This type of English variant joins the existing "New Englishes" category as it has been termed by Kachru (1985) and this is the New/Outer circle variety of English. According to Ola-Busari (2014) the Outer circle which is known to be the norm initiator, has led to the nativisation of the English language with features of "Namlish", that is English language usage that is peculiar to Namibians.

Table 2: Dominant home languages in Namibia, percentage households

Language	1991	2001	2011
Oshiwambo	50.6	48.5	48.9
Khoekhoegowab	12.4	11.5	11.3
Afrikaans	9.5	11.4	10.4
Rukavango	10	10	8.5
Otjiherero	8	7.9	8.6
English	0.8	1.9	3.4

Sources: CSO 1994; Namibia Statistics Agency 2003, 2012

The table above depicts Namibia's main indigenous languages using data collected through the country's national census since independences and this national exercise takes place after every 10 years. The English language which is the official language has the least native speakers followed by Otjiherero speakers and Rukavango respectively. Khoekhoegowab language tops the second most popular language in Namibia, surpassing the Afrikaans language which served as the national language alongside English during the colonial era. Topping the list since the 1991 census, Oshiwambo enjoys the status of being the most popular indigenous language in Namibia with almost half of the population (48.9%) (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2011).

The following is a displayed dynamic model of the evolution of New Englishes according to Schneider (2003). New Englishes consists of five phases, which, at the risk of some oversimplification, can be summarised as follows Schneider, (2003, pp. 244-253):

Phase 1 — Foundation: In this initial phase, the English language is transported to a new (colonial) territory.

Phase 2 — Exonormative stabilisation: There is a growing number of English settlers / speakers in the new territory, but the language standards and norms are still determined by the input variety and are, thus, usually oriented towards British English.

Phase 3 — Nativisation: The English language becomes an integral part of the local linguistic repertoire as there is a steady increase in the number of competent bilingual L2 speakers of English from the indigenous population, and under-goes a characteristic restructuring process that is labelled "structural nativisation".

Phase 4 — Endonormative stabilisation: After Independence, English may be retained as a co-official language and a medium of communication for a more or less wide range of intra-national contexts (e.g. administration and the press, academia and education); in this phase a new variety of English emerges with generally accepted local standards and norms.

Phase 5 — Differentiation: Once a New English variety has become endonormatively stabilised, it may develop a wide range of regional and social dialects. Schneider (2003, pp. 244-253):

2.2.1 The processes of the nativisation of the English language

The term nativisation has been described variously as acculturation (Stanlaw, 1982) whilst (Richards, 1982) calls it “indigenisation” or “hybridisation” of language in the native sociocultural context. Kachru (1981) believes that this term is used to describe the divergence of varieties of a language from a parent source. Language varies because of the wide range of uses to which it is attached, and it is a matter of common experience that we speak and write differently in different situations. English also varies because it has speakers that come from different regions, status and social class, and these variations are associated with these which often function as marker of group identity.

According to the Oxford Living Dictionary (n.d), the noun “nativisation linguistics”, is a process of adopting a loan word to the phonetic structure of the native language; the process of developing a pidgin language into a creole”. Ngula (2014) asserts, hybridisation innovations involve a systematic difference in the vocabulary of educated Ghanaians in their day to day use of English (p. 181).

The term, nativisation of a language, can be defined as re-defining the language in one's own linguistic and cultural framework. It is a process of accumulation of new words and meanings to suit the social and cultural requirements. It is a known fact that a language changes over time and place, therefore the English used in environments different from its origin, would adjust and change to suit its new environment.

Magura (as cited in Marungudzi, 2016, p. 4) asserts that “English has remained a prestige variety which is now used to convey and express local culture and traditions”. Despite the fact that out of Zimbabwe’s population, only 2% is non-African i.e. White and Asian. In the 1988 publication Kachru puts Zimbabwe in the extending circle, a comparison of the socio-historical and functional circumstances of Zimbabwean English and Kachru’s rubric for the outer circle would in fact place Zimbabwean English in the outer circle (Marungudzi, 2016).

English has been nativised in grammar, semantics and pragmatics, acquiring and transforming the features of such a language. An example is the Indian language which is well documented in sociolinguistics literature.

Buschfeld and Kautzsch (2014) however, attempted to adopt the model for the description of non-post-colonial Englishes and argue that, based on the initial investigation of its structures, English in Namibia is currently moving from stage 2 (Exonerative Stabilisation) to stage 3 (Nativisation), the situation possibly being a result of the early influence of South African English on the English used in Namibia, and more likely of the adoption of English as the sole official language in the state on its gaining independence.

Regarding the East African English, Ngugi has depicted an everyday speech forms in his settings, and he therefore expressed his views Ngugi (2006) as follows:

We don't on the whole, have an East African English yet, although it may come into being. So, the kind of English we have in Africa is very much the sort of school English with correct grammar, etc. But may be in a few years' time in East Africa there will be a variation of English that can be content mere to capture everything or ordinary life and speech, using the so-called Standard English (pp. 48-49).

Dabrowska (2016) argue that "English in Namibia appears to be a rather unique case when compared to other varieties of English used in the world. It is an African variety of English spoken in Southern Africa" (p. 338). They are to be understood as varieties used as a second language in countries which were formerly British colonies, and, having gained independence, for a variety of reasons, decided to continue using English as the official or one of the official stated languages (Crystal, 2003).

"The aim of introducing English is to introduce an official language that will steer the people away from lingo-tribal affiliations and differences and create conditions conducive to national unity in the realm of language" (Deumert, 2009. p. 393).

The process of nativisation takes place in the following manner:

- Takes into consideration of the process of nativisation of English at various linguistics levels.
- Demonstrate the changes English has undergone because of its contact with diverse languages in countries like India, Nigeria and the Caribbean.

Research conducted by Brutt-Griffler (2002) it was found that with the spread of English as an international language, English is spoken by 80% of people who are non-traditional mother tongue

speakers. In South Africa only 5% are native speakers, while the majority of the English users are outer circle speakers, who have nine other indigenous African languages as their home languages.

In the context of English, the term nativisation refers to the changes which English has undergone as a result of its contact with languages in diverse cultural and geographical settings in the peripheral circle of English. The process of nativisation in English is responsible for deviations in the new varieties of English, thereby raising various types of linguistic and sociolinguistic issues. Nativisation can be defined as a process whereby a language gains native speaker, this process happens necessarily where a second language that is used by adult parents becomes the native language of their children. Nativisation has been of particular interest to linguists in the past years. "The process of nativisation is due to the transfer from local language as well as to the new cultural environment and communicative needs", (Saghal 1991. p. 300). Talking of the nativisation of English, Phillipson (1992) comments that, "it is the process by which English has been indigenised in different parts of the world, and developed distinct and secure local forms determined by local norms as opposed to those of the native speaker in the centre" (p.198). The process of nativisation can be viewed in two ways; firstly, it is the process through which it institutionalises itself and becomes a recognised and accepted variety. Secondly, it is related to the changes in the attitude of its speakers towards the localised variety.

According to Stell (2016, p. 326) "the pre-independence diaglossic pattern which involved Afrikaans as a high-status language and ethnic indigenous languages as low-status languages is giving way to a triglossic pattern dominated by English, the country's only official language since 1990". Indigenous ethnic languages are disadvantaged because of the status of the English language in Namibia. Instead, the dominant linguistic patterns of informal inter-ethnic communication in Windhoek rely either mostly on English, or on mixed linguistic repertoires combining 'Coloured Afrikaans' and English. Which of the two linguistic options dominates depends on the interactants' race, ethnicity, and how long one has lived in Windhoek, and their social networks.

Moag (1992) talks of four such stages in the life cycle of a nativised language. In the first stage, a language is brought to an alien land where it is a new language altogether. This could be caused by various reasons for the arrival of this new language. Like in the case of India, English came along with the British but refused to go back with them. As English was the language of the master, the locals were expected to learn it, and their learning it was deemed as an acknowledgement of the superiority of the master. The second stage in the process is that of indigenisation. Once a language is transplanted to a new culture, it starts nativising. This brings in changes to the language and makes it distinct from the parent variety and the other indigenized or nativised varieties. The longer the language stays in the new soil, the more acculturated it becomes. As Kachru (1986) observes, all the

institutionalised second language (L2) varieties have a long history of acculturation in the new cultural and geographical contexts. They establish their roles in various domains of a nation's life such as educational, administrative and legal systems. As a result of such uses, they develop nativised discourse, style types and functionally determined sublanguages and they are used as a linguistic vehicle for creative writing in various genres (p. 19). The variation from the parent language becomes enormous as it takes deeper roots in the new land. Thus, in the Indian context, English becomes one of the Indian languages to represent Indian cultural values in a distinctive way.

The third stage in the process of nativisation is that of extension in use and function. Initially, it spreads as the lingua franca of the people and as the medium of instruction in schools. As we have discussed earlier, in the process of nativisation, English slowly begins to become the medium of communication among the colonised, especially if they belong to two different linguistic backgrounds. In the case of India, it was the main medium of communication, especially between the people of the North and the South.

In the fourth stage of the process, the nativised variety is institutionalised. Several factors play key roles in the process of institutionalisation. Firstly, the adoption of English for literary writing exposes the variety to the world in general and strengthens its existence. Signs of nativisation become more explicit as creative writing moves from the native English of educated locals to the second generation of locally educated writers. More deviations from the native variety are manifest in their works. As these works become regenerative and find a place in the English curriculum of schools and colleges, they become more institutionalised. They encourage more people to pick up their pens and provide a model for accepted norms. Another factor is the localisation of teachers. As the case in Ghana, Ngula (2014) noted a creative linguistic feature of educated Ghanaian English which has now established the variety as one of the frequently cited emerging local standard varieties of English.

According to Kachru (1986) nativisation is a type of cultural and linguistic identity that has influenced and modified the English language and has added to its pluralism as well. Kachru (1986) says that the texture of the text may be, and often is, a transfer from another dominant language, as a result of lexical shift: direct lexical transfer, hybridising, code-switching, etc. "The devices used for nativising rhetorical strategies include similes and metaphors from local languages that may result in unusual collocations, combinations of lexical items, for the native speakers" (Writers, 2016, p. 28).

Zivenge (2009) maintains that, "the invasion and subsequent colonisation of African states resulted in inevitable diaglossic situations that prompted the transfer of lexical items from one language into the other" (p. 10). Nativisation has become an important aspect in contemporary studies because

language contact has been greatly facilitated by globalisation. It has become the major concern of contemporary linguists, for the manner in which languages handle incoming vocabulary determines their development and ability to cope with globalisation (Zivenge, 2009, p. 10).

De Koning (2009) states that the concept of new Englishes developed as a result of the relatively new perception of English as an adapting and evolving language within an increasingly wider global context. De Koning further argues that according to MacArthur (1992, p. 688), the term “new Englishes” refers to a recently emerged and increasingly autonomous variety of English, especially in a non-Western setting, such as India, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania etc. Such varieties of English develop from an English traditionally recognised as standard, to become distinctly individual; they retain some cultural and linguistic characteristics of standard English, but additionally represent and include many aspects of the culture and language of the country in which the new English functions. These new Englishes are lexico-grammatically sophisticated and are as viable as any of the traditionally recognised standard Englishes. The new languages are used internationally and so they are not only a result of intercultural communication, but they also facilitate and enable intercultural communication.

2.2.2 The various levels of the nativisation of English

2.2.2.1 Lexical nativisation

Ngula (2014) explains that, lexis is used to describe vocabulary in general and to stress the entire list of vocabulary items in a language or varieties of a language (p. 182).

Knutsson (2011) states that, there are different groups and reasons for people using English, it is important to try to define the usage and the user better (p. 11). There are some unique qualities within the east African English, numerous historical and linguistic reasons relating to phonology, syntax, lexis and morphology. There are significant linguistic changes in phonological, lexical and grammatical features in East African English and these features make it uniquely distinction from other varieties of English. The fact that its speakers will only utilise a set of five different vowels when speaking and tend to ungrammatically split up consonant clusters with vowel insertion is also very striking (Knutsson, 2011, p. 39).

The levels of language affected by structural nativisation in New Englishes range from pronunciation and lexical items, where changes may be immediately evident, to syntax, where novel linguistic structures frequently take the shape of statistical tendencies, which may be indicative of shifting preferences among speakers (Schneider, 2007. p. 87). The obvious impact of the usage of a foreign

language is the transfer phenomena on the levels of phonology and structure which are bound to occur, and although largely unrecorded, there is evidence within the local indigenous language on the on-set.

Lexical features are produced by the lexical hybridisation through the non-native varieties of English which also occurs in other outer circle varieties of English such as Indian English (Kachru, 2005). Kenyan English is assumed to have reached stage 3 (nativisation) by now, which is the phase marked by the 'heaviest effects on the restructuring of the English language itself' (Schneider, 2007, p. 44) that is a stage where linguistic innovations of various kinds occur at all levels of linguistic organisation, including the development of a characteristic accent, heavy lexical borrowing and nativisation at the level of lexicogrammar (Schneider, 2007, pp. 45-57). It is well known that on the African continent, "languages exhibit a greater tendency to place modifiers after nouns than languages in other parts of the world, with the proportions of language genera with head-initial NP order at a striking 81 per cent in Africa as opposed to 16 per cent in Europe" (Dryer, 2011, p. 287 and p. 290).

The transfer of mother tongue meanings to items of Standard English may be lexical in nature or may they may involve even higher units of description like sentence, clause, and phrase. Language transfer at higher levels may involve sentence collocation not usually found in the Standard variety. Thus, grammatical descriptions of BSAfE may potentially claim that a particular linguistic form (e.g. the use of the unmarked verb form in past time contexts) is 'characteristic' of BSAfE, but corpus evidence allowed Minow (2010, p. 111) to conclude that this phenomenon occurs in only 15% of possible past tense contexts, whereas the standard form of past tense marking is present in 85% of the possible contexts. For example, the compound 'salt-giver' in British English (BE) would indicate a man that gives salt, while in Indian English it would mean 'a person who provides subsistence'. Thus, cultural semantic values are transposed onto the BE.

Ahulu (as cited in Ngula, 2014) supports the presences of few lexical modifications in GhE, and this is what is required of a variety of a language. So to say the diverging features are invariable few whereas the converging ones are more.

Botswana English has many similar lexical items as other varieties of English in the world, native or non-native. However, there is a distinct in the Botswana English from others, such as the borrowing, word formation process and translation.

Lexical items are formed through “word formation” process.

Example: condomise and diarise are formed by adding -ise, one of the most productive derivational suffixes in English to condom and diary to change from nouns to verbs.

- Example;
- a) condomise and extend your days.
 - b) encourage all sexually active persons to condomise.
 - c) please diarise this date. Don’t miss this presentation.
 - d) staff will do well to diarise this date.

The term “condomise” is used in HIV and AIDS campaigns it is used to send out a strong message, instead of using the long word “use a condom”, condomise is used instead. The word diaries is used especially amongst university of Botswana administrative staff and several government ministries staff, additional other parts of South African make use of it (Arua, 2004, p. 267).

The Lexical items borrowing or translated into English from Setswana

Cultural and political related lexical items, these items cannot be translated into English as there is no equivalent English words or no appropriate translation.

Examples:

- a) Seswaa (pounded meat)
- b) Morogo (traditional Botswana vegetable)
- c) Logola (solid porridge prepared from boiled milk)
- d) Bogobe (sorghum meal)
- e) Makgobe (short skirt made with beads)
- f) Tshaga (cloth made from animal skin worn by boys/men to cover just the loins)

2.2.2.2 Syntactic nativisation

Syntactic, an adjective derived from the noun syntax, and the term that indicates this phenomenon is basically concerned with the rules that govern the way words should be arranged to form phrases, clauses and sentences, and every language has its own syntax. Since the English language has now

been nativised due to its use in a non-English setting and by non-English speakers, it has also affected its syntactic rules. This has been done to accommodate the socio-cultural background of the languages of the user. Syntactic nativisation occurs when the arrangements of words that forms logical sentences has been changed to suit the user. It is concerned more with the word order that should agree to certain rules of that language in order to make sense within a sentence. For example, the English language has a basic structure called SVO, which means that the sentence structure should conform to the order of, subject – verb – object. In the case of the syntactic nativisation the order of the sentence has been made modified to accommodate the socio-cultural tenets of the native language.

In case of Indian English there are a number of features that show that the language of the colonial rulers has been appropriated and nativised over a period of many years since its formal introduction. This is not only at the level of syntax and grammar, there a number of features that are instinctively its own and uniquely define its identity as compared to other varieties of English. There are many factors involved in these grammatical and syntactic shifts, the primary one being the influence of indigenous languages on the grafted language. Additionally, it is vital to recognise the nativisation of English in India, as it serves many different purposes, in different contexts, and with varying proficiency levels that Kachru (1985) calls the “cline of bilingualism”.

2.2.2.3. Morpho-syntactic features

The morpho-syntactic features are related to sound and meaning and this in other words means grammar. The word morpho-syntactic comprises of two parts (morphology and syntax) and morphology is the study of words and their rules of formation; syntax is the study of sentences and their formation rules. Also, worth noting is that words can only be meaningful when they are used in context.

a) The use of articles

According to Van Rooy (2013), there are three logically possible ways in which BSAfE articles may differ from native varieties, all of which have been reported in the literature. Articles can be omitted (Gough, 1996, p. 61), or inserted (Mesthrie, 2008, p. 496), or substituted for each other. Van Rooy (2013) further argues that De Klerk's (2006) corpus analysis confirms the use of articles with non-count nouns further more identifies a range of usage that will be un-acceptable in native varieties, thereby largely confirming pre-corpus accounts of the unsystematic use of articles.

Minow (2010) and Siebers (2012) (as cited in Van Rooy, 2013), indicate that the omission and substitution of articles, compared to native norms, occurs with a rather lower frequency. Van Rooy (2013), further argues that the insertion of articles in positions where no overt article would be used in native varieties is the most frequent deviation from the norm, and that native-like usage increases with proficiency levels.

Supporting the above, Botha (2012) identified systematic patterns of different usages in BSAfE, such as the usage of articles more widely than English native speakers. “The” can be more wide usage of indefinite articles in noun phrases with non-particular interpretations, where such nouns are conventionally constructed as uncountable. According to Van Rooy (2013), this can be exemplified by the use of the definite articles with ascriptive nominals in BSAfE as in “it’s the question of loyalty”. Other examples are illustrated in the table below;

Table 3. Native speaker varieties versus BSAfE

Native speaker varieties	BSAfE
go to the shop/bank	go to the school/university/jail/hospital
to have a better life	to have a time to relax

Looking at the table above one can conclude that both, Botha (2012) and Sieber’s (2012) arguments are correct to say that the underlying system of the article usage in the native varieties is the same in BSAfE.

b) Idiomatic expressions

Idiomatic expressions are an expression whose meanings cannot be inferred from the meaning of the words that make it up, such as “hold your tongue” it means “remain silent” (www.vocabulary.com). Siebers (2012) identified idiomatic expressions characterised within the BSAfE usage, such as the formation of a ‘kind of a NOUN’ example in the sentence (1) If you go and look for a job, you must be doing “some kind of a research” in order to know what kind of company is that. Additionally, Botha

(2012) adds that the differences between BSAfE and native varieties are due to alternative constructions that are conventionalised in BSAfE.

According to Arua (2004), the proverb or idiomatic expression “you like things” is translated as “O rata dilo “ in Setswana which means “you are arrogant” or “you have a superiority complex” (p. 268).

This interpretation applies mainly to people who have pretentious mannerism, including behaviour associated with materialists. The expression reference to those people who pretend to be rich upper-class people , these are the people who like things.

Marungudzi (2010), regarding the use of the progressive verb, it is anticipated that Zimbabwean English (ZimE) departs from Standard English conventions based on the observation that there is quite significant deletion of the auxiliary *be* in particular verb phrases in the progressive aspect in the neighbouring varieties, as referred to earlier. There is however a caveat that some verbs are both stative and dynamic.

Examples (1) and (2) below show the word *taste* as stative and dynamic respectively:

- (1) The juice is tasting great.
- (2) The connoisseurs will be tasting the wine just now

The purpose of the progressive aspect is to indicate “a happening in progress at a given time” (Quirk *et al.*, 1985:197). In addition, there are also other polysemous words such as *impress*, one of whose meanings is dynamic and can therefore take the progressive aspect while the other meaning is stative and therefore cannot take the progressive aspect. This is exemplified in examples (3) and (4) below:

- (3) She was impressing all the judges.
- (4) They were already impressing patterns on the coins when the printer broke down.

Verbs used in habitual contexts, which were not attested in the ZimE corpus, also do not take the progressive aspect (Marungudzi, 2010, p. 92) and stative verbs are bound to be treated as dynamic verbs and therefore it is anticipated that, despite the fact that Shona is the indigenous language spoken by the majority of the population.

The morphological features

c) Quantifiers in BSAfE mass and count nouns

Botha (2012, pp. 309 - 314) points out that most of the exceptional usages noted by De Klerk and pre-corpus accounts of BSAfE are due to systematic extensions of other uses of quantifiers that do resemble native varieties more closely. The expression 'most of' is overly used in some instances, it is however acceptable but not a regular occurrence amongst native speakers. Example; "most of the club owners" and "most of the days I go to work"

According to van Rooy (2013), the distinction between mass and count nouns has received highlights in the BSAfE research. There is a claim that non-count nouns are used as if they are count nouns (Mesthrie, 2008); whilst De Klerk (2006) claims that certain mass nouns are used with plural suffixes such as homework's, equipments, moneys and advices. Moreover, there is a number of nouns that seem to have gone under reanalysis such as nouns that refer to countable objects, for example 'equipment' and 'furniture'. Abstract mass nouns such as 'information' or 'advice', have been re-analysed as countable nouns and this as in the native varieties where they are used as mass nouns.

Marungudzi (2010), asserts the use of " too, too much or very much" for the qualifier very was also found to be a salient feature of ZimE though this was seen not to be as prevalent as the features that have been discussed so far. This feature was found to be quite pervasive in the peer African varieties in general as well as South African varieties in particular though it emerged that the conceptualisation of this linguistic structure varied from researcher to researcher.

Examples; (a) Mathematics is not a very loved subject.

(b) This car is very smaller than yours.

(c) This is the very most memorable event.

d) Morpho-syntax: Verbal concord

Steigertahl's (2014) study found the overuse of the 3rd person singular as in;

1. you was here, instead of (you were here)
2. they does not understand, instead of (they do not understand)

3. the schools is operating, instead of (the schools are operating)

e) Reduplications

1. Changing meaning (now now = soon, sharp sharp = good bye)
2. Not changing meaning (fine fine fine)

Steigertahl (2014) claims that there are some trends of reduplication of words, and by so doing the new variety features change the meaning in some instances such as in the sentence, “I’m coming now now”; the repeated “now now” may refer to soon; however, the speaker does not really imply to an immediate action, it could also be in a few hours’ time. The same applies to the repeated words “sharp sharp”, where these two consecutive same words denote “good bye”, and this is something that is said when someone is leaving, which is contrary to the actual meaning of the word “sharp” which denotes something pointy.

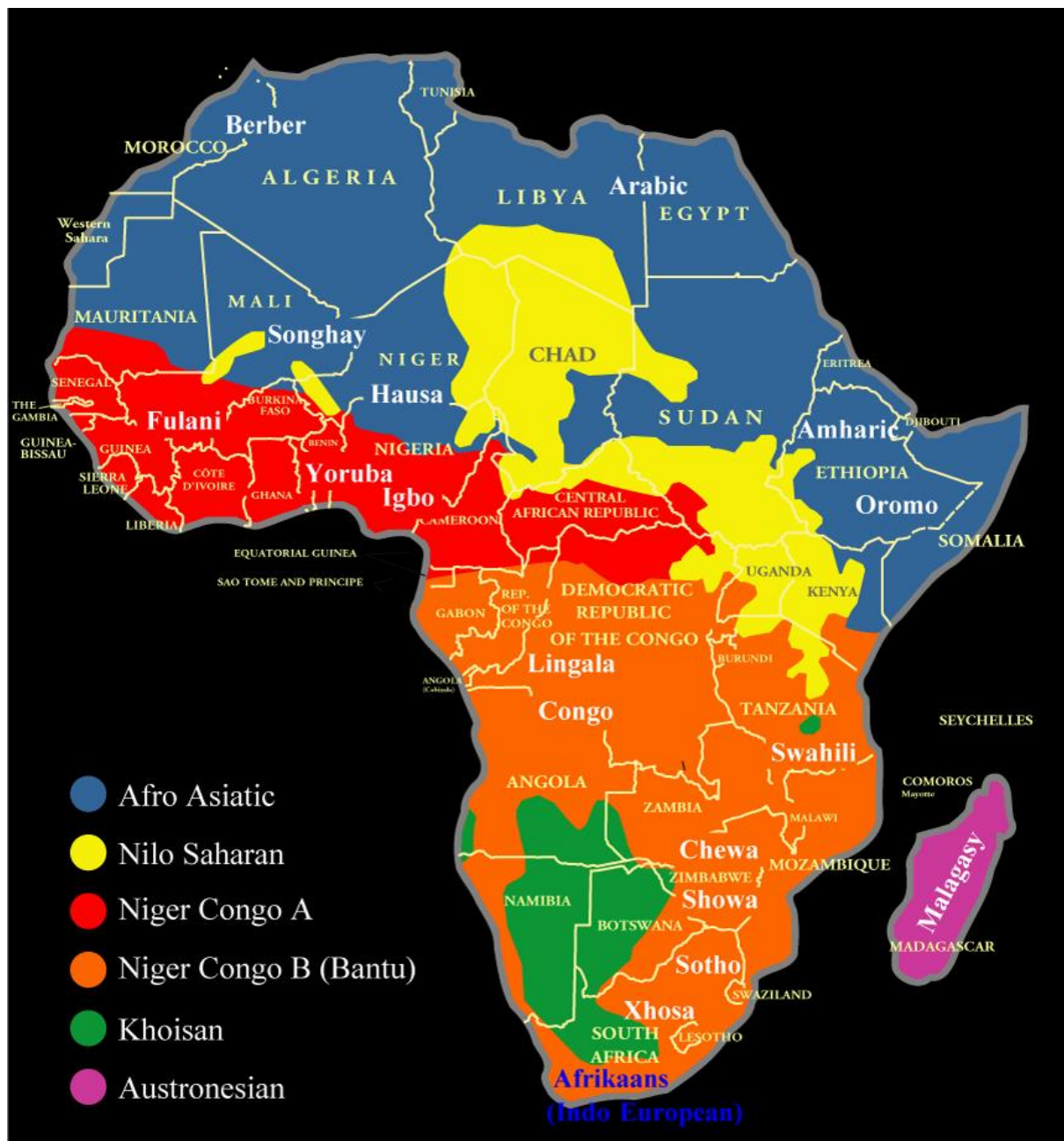
The following are the findings of Leketi (2007) who states that the development of BSAfE and its use in public domains is due to the prestigious social status of its speakers in prominent positions, which gives it clout in order to develop further in the new political dispensation. Therefore, the new standard will need to be employed through these steps:

- The use of cross-variety corpora to identify commonly shared features
- The codification of written norms through dictionaries and grammar outlines and
- Material design and teacher (re)training programmes based on the local forms.

Leketi (2007) maintains that, some scholars have shown that BSAE is in a liberation and expansion phase (Van der Walt & Van Rooy, 2002; Wissing, 2002) where there is confusion between the use of exonormative and edonormative forms. The Bantu language logic described in this study suggests rather that BSAE has reached an edonormative phase as a variety in its own right (Leketi, 2007, p. 16).

According to Leketi (2007), “morpho-syntactic, phonological and discourse and pragmatic features showed that the rules of Bantu language logic naturalise the variety, paving its way to becoming a distinct edonormative outer circle English” (p. 17). This involves studying corpora of different sub-varieties and sister varieties in South Africa. Taken together, it appears that the nativisation of BSAE, occurred through the spread of the Bantu language and changes in the history of English as an international language (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Kachru, 1986) (see map below).

Figure 1: Map of the African continent with its current borders showing the distribution of African language families and some major African languages.



Source: www.afrikaanheritage.com

The figure above illustrates the African language map that depicts the distribution of different African language families. From the figure, one can see that the Afro Asiatic languages are mostly found in the northern part of Africa and the Bantu languages cover the whole of southern African countries together with the Khoisan languages that are found inside Namibia, southern Angola, South Africa and a fraction in Zambia and Zimbabwe. The African language map supports the widespread Bantu ethnic groups in Africa as mentioned by Leketi (2007). The four major African languages are Afro-Asiatic, Nilo-

Saharian, Niger-Saharan and the Khoisan. With the foregoing information, one can imagine the impact that this might have on the English language in those different African countries. Different colonial masters came with their own colonial languages and hence not all African countries have English as their official language. However, there is an ample amount of English that is spoken in every one of them, with various degrees of usage. Leketi (2007) asserts that the majority of English language speakers are not the traditional native speakers; therefore, this has caused the phenomenon of the new English varieties to emerge (p. 129). Research on the spread of English as an international language has shown that 80% of its speakers are non-traditional mother tongue speakers (Brutt-Griffler, 2002).

f) Stative verbs

These verbs describes a quality or status of something which does not changing or likely to change, they are never used in a progressive form. They usually relate to thoughts, emotions, relationships, senses, states of being and measurements. When a verb describes a state and not an action we do not use the continuous tense, example the word “play” is an action so we can say “playing” whereas “be” is a fixed state which does not change, such as, “to be” or “not to be”. The traditional conceptualisation of stative verbs is that they are verbs that denote states as opposed to dynamic verbs, which denote action (Huddleston & Pullum 2002).

Marungudzi (2010) there is however a caveat that some verbs are both stative and dynamic. Examples (1) and (2) below show the word *taste* as stative and dynamic respectively:

(1) The juice is tasting great.

(2) The connoisseurs will be tasting the wine just now

In addition, there are also other polysemous words such as *impress*, one of whose meanings is dynamic and can therefore take the progressive aspect while the other meaning is stative and therefore cannot take the progressive aspect. Example;

(3) She was impressing all the judges.

(4) They were already impressing patterns on the coins when the printer broke down.

Verbs used in habitual contexts, which were not attested in the ZimE corpus, also do not take the progressive aspect (Marungudzi, 2010, p. 92) and Stative verbs are bound to be treated as dynamic verbs and therefore it is anticipated that, despite the fact that Shona is the indigenous language

spoken by the majority of the population. Marungudzi (2010) the deletion of the *be* auxiliary, the occurrence of the feature can be attributed in general to inadequate mastery of the second language by the Zimbabwean speakers of English.

g) The usage of the exclamation “sharp!”

Arua (2004), asserts that sharp is clear an English word, it seems to be available for use in English and Setswana and other indigenous languages in Botswana. However, there is no actual history to assert how It came into being. Sharp! is thus used to acknowledge a favour, to express appreciation or acknowledge acceptable behaviour.

This exclamation has two senses. First one “fine” a form of phatic communication.

Example in a conversation between two people;

(a) How is it? (Go jwag?)

(b) sharp!

The word “Go Jwag” also means “how are you?”

Second sense “approval “ it denotes good, excellent or thank you.

Example:

(A) Have you done the job?

(B) Yes, it is in your office.

(A) Sharp? See you later.

h) The redundant use of personal /reflexive pronouns

Arua (2004), in his work he asserts, the pronouns “me”, us, myself the first person singular reflexive pronoun, sometimes proceed the personal pronouns I and we whenever they are used initially in a sentence. Example;

1. Myself and I study English
2. Me I don't know
3. Us we have four rooms.

This redundant syntactic structure seems to have been transferred from Setswana into English. In the Setswana sentence “Nna ke ithuta sekgo” which translates (me I am learning English) mna = me and myself, ke = I. the sentence structure has been directly translated from the Setswana language and this is the first language interference.

2.2.3 Evaluating the effects of language contact concerning standard English

According to Kachru and Smith (1985) Englishes symbolise the functional and formal variation in the language, and its international acculturation, for example, in West Africa, Southern Africa, East Africa, South Asia, Southeast Asia, the West Indies, the Philippines, and East Africa, and in the traditional English-using countries such as the USA, the UK, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand. The language is an additional language, whether it is in standardised form or its localised form (Kachru & Smith 1985, p.210). The English language has four major categories: native English, new English, contact English which has a slightly different history of development, and native English varieties which have developed in settlement colonies like the US. The varieties of English both in Europe and overseas tend to show variations in certain key features, for instance, special verbal structures to express aspectual distinctions are common to nearly all varieties in the developing world. Pronunciation and morphology features can equally be classified according to the number of variations in non-standard forms of the language, and these affect the standard English.

Stell (2016), states that the pre-independence diglossic pattern which involved Afrikaans as high-status language and ethnic indigenous languages as low-status languages is giving way to a triglossic pattern dominated by English, the country's only official language since 1990. Indigenous ethnic languages are still hardly used for inter-ethnic communication, which seems to be a correlate of 'hard' inter-ethnic boundaries inherited from apartheid. Instead, the dominant linguistic patterns of informal inter-ethnic communication in Windhoek rely either mostly on English, or mixed linguistic repertoires combining 'Coloured Afrikaans' and English. Which of the two linguistic options dominates, depends on the interactants' race, ethnicity, length of stay in Windhoek, and social networks.

The foreign English category involves varieties of English spoken in foreign language acquisition contexts. These are contexts where comprehensible input in countries like South Korea, Japan, and China, where English is required and learned for international communication, and plays no other major role in national domains. New Englishes developed in exploitation colonies in Africa and India. These varieties make up the category that gave rise to the concept 'World Englishes,' which

acknowledges the new sociolinguistic reality of English in countries that are traditionally non-mother tongue-speaking.

In his research Knútsson (2011) found that the most prominent distinguishing feature of East African English is its limited number of vowels and syllable stressed pronunciation, but there are also other distinctive features related to vocabulary and grammar. It is often either the speaker's mother tongue or the intertribal lingua franca Swahili, also called Kiswahili, which plays a major role in creating and maintaining these features. Many of these features have appeared in studies performed with comparisons to Standard British English (Knútsson, 2011, p. 3).

Knútsson (2011) further argues that the East African variety of English is, like all other languages, constantly evolving. Its origin is rooted in the language of colonists and it has developed into being an official language that East Africa's inhabitants choose to utilise when communicating with one another and to strengthen their ties to the English-speaking world (p. 4). East African English is considered to belong to the varieties of English that are "typical English as second language varieties, part of the New Englishes and Kachru's (1986) outer circle (Schmied, 2004, p. 188). Knutsson (2011, p. 7) examined the East African variety of English regarding these definitions and its distinctive features, and compared East African English to other varieties of English, especially those of other African nations. This includes the examination of the root causes and the factors that have brought about these unique varieties of English about both linguistics and history.

Knutsson (2011) asserts that the influencing factors may include word usage, grammar, the stressing of syllables, and the pronunciation of consonants and vowels. East African English possesses some unique features for which there are numerous historical and linguistic reasons relating to phonology, syntax, lexis and morphology (pp. 7-8). Schmied (2004, p. 918) asserted that, East African English phonology and East African English entails countries like Kenyan, Uganda and Tanzania who share a common Anglophone background, despite some interesting differences in their colonial heritage. These three countries are also characterised by a complex pattern of African first languages mainly from the Bantu and Nilo-Saharan language families, a common lingua franca (Kiswahili) and an equally complex mixture of Christian, Islamic and native African religious and cultural beliefs.

With the multilingual nature of all African countries, most of them have two or more main languages, and some of these languages are also shared between countries. Languages like Swahili, which is a Bantu language, is widely spoken on the east coast of Africa either as a mother tongue or a fluent second language "Swahili language". The indigenous languages are usually divided into three main streams: Afro-Asiatic, Cushitic/Sudanic and Nilotic, and Niger Congo-Wolof. Most of the languages of

Southern and Eastern Africa are closely related and belong to the Bantu family within Niger-Congo. Many of these are tone languages that also contain numerous affixes (Melchers and Shaw, 2003, p. 147). Tunde-Awe (2014) posits that “nativisation is a term commonly adapted by sociolinguists for describing the indigenisation of English in a second language environment” (p. 485).

Kachru (1983) argues that many African English speakers argue that when English is used in non-native environments, many aspects of its lexicon, grammar and pronunciation are modified and acculturated to suit the local culture. Bagwasi (2012) challenged the interpretation of the modifications that the English language undergoes in non-native environments. Bagwasi (2012) argues that most of these modifications of English in African settings support Englishisation of African culture rather than Africanisation of the English language. Bagwasi (2012) further argues that some of the acclaimed acculturated forms fall short of representing local culture and local practices, but instead represent English practices and value systems. Bagwasi (2012) further argues that in situations where English is used in an African context, African values, perspectives and viewpoints are compromised and distorted while English values, perspectives and viewpoints are adopted and promoted.

Moreover, Botha (2013) stated that, Black South African English (BSAfE) is now generally regarded as an independent variety of English rather than an interlanguage on the way to Standard English (Van Rooy, 2008, pp. 274-300). Mesthrie (2006, p. 115) demonstrates that many of the characteristic features of BSAfE can be ascribed to the overarching tendency of anti-deletion. Anti-deletion is a term coined by Mesthrie (2006, p. 115) to encompass three kinds of linguistic phenomena that are the opposite of deletion in generative analyses of English, namely undeletion, non-deletion and insertion. Undeletion ‘restores an element that is often assumed to be deleted or to have an empty node in generative analyses of English (Mesthrie, 2006, p. 125), for example, “She made me to go” (Mesthrie, 2006, p. 111) in which the infinitive marker “to” is undeleted. Insertion entails the addition of grammatical morphemes, for example “can be able” (Mesthrie, 2006, pp. 139-140). After an examination of several undeletion phenomena in interviews with 12 mesolectal speakers of Safe, Mesthrie (2006, p. 129) arrives at the following principle: ‘If a grammatical feature can be deleted in Standard English, it can be undeleted in Black South African English mesolect. Mesthrie (2006, p. 129 points out that such undeletion are not mandatory and adds the following corollary to the principle of undeletion; “If a grammatical feature can be deleted in SE, it can also be (variably) deleted in Black South African English mesolect, at a lower rate of frequency” (Mesthrie, 2006, p. 129).

De Klerk (2003), argues that Black South African English (BSAE) is regarded as the variety of English commonly used by mother-tongue speakers of South Africa's indigenous African languages in areas

where English is not the language of the majority. This is embedded in the history of the teaching of English to the black people of this country, where the role models who teach English are second language learners themselves. To date, BSAE has mainly been studied within an applied linguistic framework with an emphasis on its character as a second language which is deviant from standard English.

The contact of English with Yoruba brought about a simplified form of English known as 'pidgin'. Pidgin, however, is regarded as the corrupt form of English because its grammar is very different. Moreover, it has no defined standard grammar or model. Indeed, pidgins do not have noun-verb agreement endings and pronunciations tend towards a pattern of consonants followed by vowel clusters.

According to Bamgbose (1995. p. 13) "pidgin is a contact English". To Odumuh (1984. p. 10) the colonial administration remained the single greatest carrier of English language and culture. Odumuh (1984) further observes that:

The language of the Colonial Administration (the civil service) was English. Not only did the administrators help to 'spread' English language using bureaucratese and officialese: but more importantly in their homes, they again did in their interaction with domestic staff—guards, gardeners, stewards, etc. In India these were the nurturing places, which manufactured Butler English; in Nigeria, they were responsible for the rise of Nigerian Pidgin, non-standard Nigerian English, and NigE (p. 11).

As noted by Grieve (1964) and cited by Hunjo (2002) and Adedimeji (2007), the English language has assumed a function that relates to the expression of ideas typically African. The language is a vehicle of African cultures as well as of English and in these cultures (African), concepts exist which do not exist in English culture. So, if English is to be an effective mode of communication in Africa, it is essential that it adapts itself to be able to express these concepts. Odumuh (1984) also aptly expresses Achebe's (1974) views when he describes Nigerian English as a variety belonging to Nigeria but still in communion with its ancestral home, altered to suit its new African surrounding. So, the use of English in Nigeria is characterised by the idiosyncratic norms reminiscent of the Nigerian linguistic ecology and indeed her cultural heritage. On the justification for the presence of these linguistic features in Nigerian English and other non-native speakers. Soyinka (1988) maintains that:

When we borrow an alien language to sculpt or paint in, we must begin by co-opting the entire properties in our matrix of thought and expression. We must stress such a language, stretch

it, impact and compact it, fragment and reassemble it with no apology, as required to bear the burden of experiencing and of experiences, be such experiences formulated or not in the conceptual idioms of the language (p. 126).

Besides, pragmatism as a way of responding to an immediate situation through the English language medium has led to what Omolewa (1979, pp. 14-15) calls 'working English'. This is, however, different from the widespread Pidgin English which continues to serve as the linguistic bridge across the murky waters of linguistic Babel in Nigeria. Apart from the fact that Pidgin is greatly influenced by the immediate local languages, thus making uniformity difficult, it is restricted to big cities and towns and common among the proletariat. The emerging Nigerian English is not heavily dependent on indigenous languages. The syntax is 'the study of grammatical relations between words and other units within the sentence' (Matthews, 2005, p. 368).

Rodgers (1995) asserts that:

During nativisation of terminology, the most important thing to consider is that words borrowed are always crafted in a totally different or somehow different linguistic environment. This then follows that the phonological and morphological structure of a foreign word, instead of being carried over as a unit into the recipient language, is adopted and then remodelled to take-up the phonological and morphological structure of the receiving language (p. 80).

Tunde-Awe (2014) states that in Kachru's model, users of English in the Inner circle are endo-normative; those in the Outer Circle are the norm-developing, while those in the Expanding circle are exo-normative. The process of norm-development is another transition for English space-wise. It relates to what is termed new Englishes, particularly those 'Englishes' that are characterised by contacts of English with the first language of its first and second language users. Second language users of English now adopt the language to express their culture, thoughts, and habits (Bamgbose, 1995; Hunjo, 2002; Olatinwo, 2006).

According to Weinreich (1974) "two or more languages, are said to be in contact if they are used alternately by the same persons" (p. 1). Yusuf (1999) states that language contact should be seen in the broad sense of contact between two cultures that can be as a result of conquests, wars, migration, and colonisation (p. 159). Moreover, whenever two languages come in contact within an individual or a community, such an individual or host community inevitably becomes bilingual (Crystal, 1997).

According to Mahlangu (2016) numerous studies in African languages have illustrated that lesser developed languages have benefitted from the adoption of items from other languages. For example, IsiNdebele, as one of the lesser developed indigenous languages of South Africa has been in close contact with Afrikaans and English for many years and has adopted items from several word categories, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, relatives and conjunctions (Mahlangu, 2016, p. 17).

Dzahene-Quarshie (2010) narrates that, one positive thing about borrowing into Swahili from English is the fact that most of the borrowings are lexical and this helps to strengthen it. More so, more nouns are borrowed than verbs. For example, in football reporting, although a lot of nouns are adopted from English, most of the verbs used are existing indigenous ones whose usages are extended to cover the senses of the English verbs (p. 67). Dzahene-Quarshie (2010) further posits that, on the one hand, we see the influence of English on Swahili as positive since it has served and still serves as a major source of enrichment for the Swahili language in terms of language expansion (p. 56).

If a bilingual ethos were more manifest in the metropolitan community, then there would be far less voluntary abandonment of language by indigenous speakers, and the terminology of threat would not be as widespread as it currently is (Crystal, 2000, p. 88).

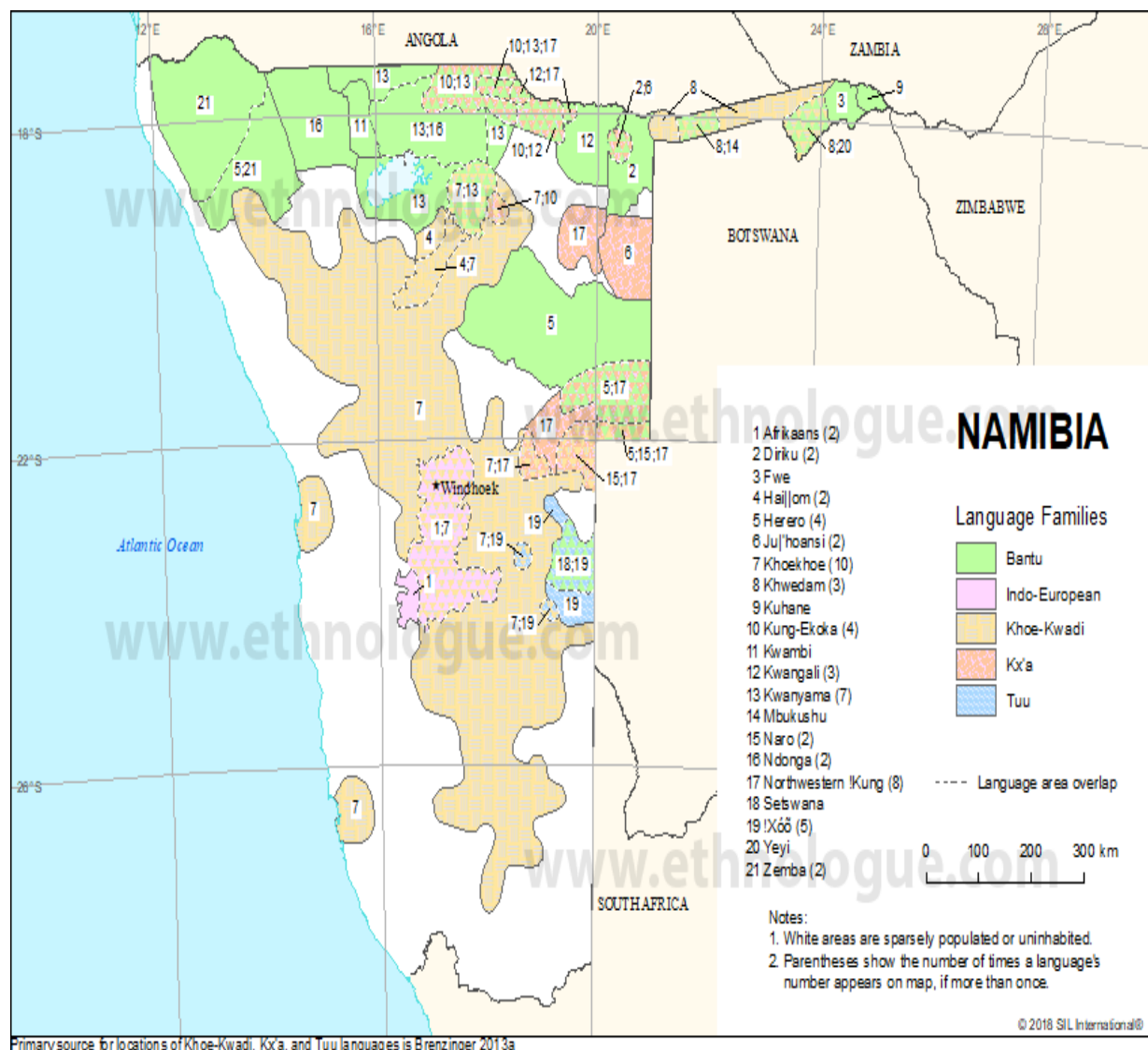
The various aspects of structural nativisation at the levels of phonology and morpho-syntax are well-documented for many New Englishes (Kortmann & Szmrecsanyi, 2004). However, only recently has it been noted that structural nativisation not only refers to entirely new and innovative forms and structures in individual varieties but also covers quantitative differences between varieties of English in the use of forms and structures that belong to the common core (Quirk & Widdowson, 1985, p. 16) that is shared by all Englishes. There is unanimous agreement that the English language has been undergoing complex processes of acculturation in many colonial and post-colonial contexts, including, for example, former British colonies in Asia which have retained the English language after independence (Kachru, 2005).

Crystal (2000) identifies language contact as one of the major causes of language endangerment. Crystal (2000), states that when a dominant culture becomes assimilated into a weaker one, the language of the weaker culture often becomes endangered. This linguistic phenomenon of language endangerment may lead to the eventual death of the original language and it has become a concern for linguists. English has been appropriated by its non-European users and changed to reflect their own experiences (Mair & Leech, 2008, p. 235). An integral part of the processes of acculturation are linguistic changes, with new forms and structures emerging at the level of vocabulary and syntax (e.g.

due to loanwords and transfer from local languages) and new norms evolving in phonology and intonation (e.g. concerning the range of consonant clusters and intonation contours). The linguistic changes can be subsumed under the notion of structural nativisation, that is, the emergence of locally characteristic linguistic patterns (Schneider, 2007, pp. 5-6).

The map below illustrates the Namibian languages, in terms of their demographic distributions in different parts of the country. There are 5 Namibian language families, 27 individual living languages, of these 22 are indigenous and 5 non-indigenous. 13 languages are institutionalised and 5 are developing. The Bantu languages are the dominant followed by the Khoe-kwadi. With this background there is no doubt that these indigenous languages in Namibia affects the Standard of the English language that has brought forth various English variants.

Fig. 2 Map of Namibian languages. Source: Ethnologue



2.3 Research gap

Local related research focused on the linguistics levels of English, as well as the impact English as a second language has on the education of the Namibia population. Other countries such as South Africa, Tanzania and Kenya have also focused on the systematic examination of the English language; however, none of the studies focused on the nativisation of the English language in Namibia from a corpus level.

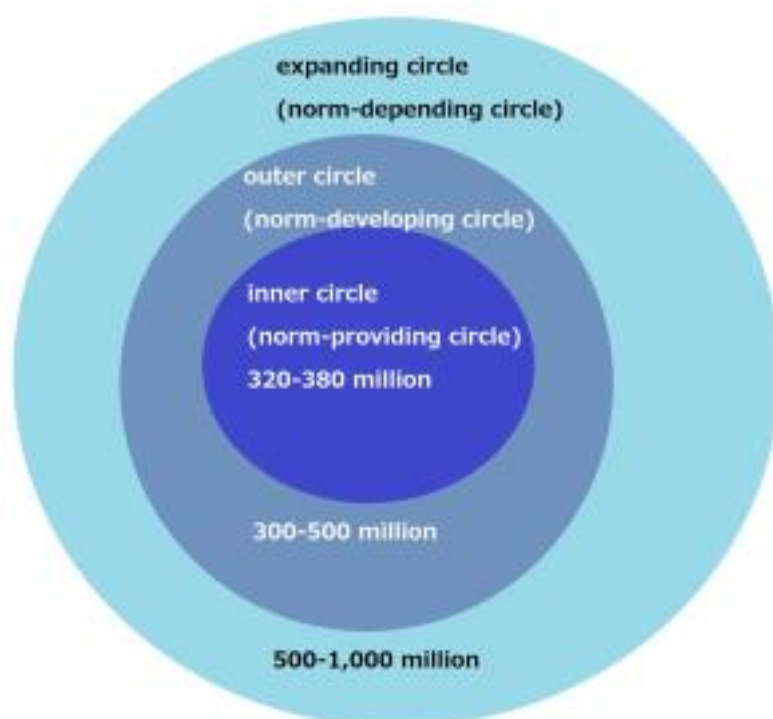
2.4 Theoretical framework

Due to the dynamic nature of Kachru's model, this thesis is informed by his theory. Kachru coined the term "World Englishes" which refers to the fact that the English language has been used as a global means of communication in numerous dialects worldwide. It also refers to the movement towards an 'international standard' of the English language.

Kachru constructed a model of the different uses of English around the world and the diffusion of English is seen in terms of three concentric circles; (a) the Inner circle (first language varieties), (b) the Outer circle (English as second language varieties) and (c) the Expanding circle (English as foreign language varieties).

These circles represent the type of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages (Kachru, 1985, p.12).

Fig. 3



According to Kachru (1985) dividing English speakers into Inner, Outer and Expanding circles is preferable to the traditional native, ESL and EFL labels which involve the dichotomy between native and non-native speakers (Rajadurai, 2005). English native speakers are visually not privileged since they are not placed at the top of the Three-circle Model. However, the model is not sufficiently dynamic to reflect the reality of English use in the world. It still prefers the English native speakers in the inner circle.

In Kachru's Three-circle Model, the Inner Circle refers to the traditional bases of English, dominated by the mother-tongue varieties, where English acts as a first language (White, 1997). The countries involved in the inner circle include the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. The varieties of English used here are said to be 'norm providing'. The outer circle consists of the earlier phases of the spread of English in non-native settings, where the language has become part of a country's chief institutions, and plays an important 'second language' role in multilingual settings (Rajadurai, 2005). Most of the countries included in the outer circle are former colonies of the UK, USA and English is not spoken natively but still holds an important position and serves as a language of communication, such as an official "second" language, and this might be the case due to historical reasons. These countries include Malaysia, South Africa, Zimbabwe, Singapore, India, Ghana, Kenya and others. The English used in the outer circle is considered as 'norm-developing', and the norms produced by the inner circle's countries are further developed and reproduced in this circle.

The expanding circle refers to the territories where English is learnt as a foreign language. The territories do not have a history of colonisation by members of the inner circle and or an institutional or social role. English is taught as a 'foreign' language since it is considered as the most useful vehicle of international communication (White, 1997). The countries in the expanding circle which are also norm dependent include China, Japan, Greece and Poland (Crystal, 1997).

In other words, what we have can be explained as follows:

(a) the inner circle (first language) varieties these are the English native speakers and their variety is made up the traditional bases of the language. The English language norms are created and this is where they spread to other circles. The English mother tongue speakers are countries like the USA, United Kingdom, Australia and Canada. Although they provide the language norms, their population is being overshadowed by the outer circle, because English is now an international language.

(b) the outer circle (English as second language) varieties these are the official non-native variant, caused by colonialism or some historical phenomenon. These people from these countries are the one who challenges the norms and decided to develop their own variant, and they are mainly English second language speakers. This English language is constantly in contact with the indigenous languages, this causes the English variety to be influenced by those other native languages and in most cases, they incorporate some of their features and by so doing nativisation occurs. The reason for this is that the contact with other languages prompts changes in its vocabulary, grammar and other linguistic features. These are countries like, Pakistan, South Africa, India, Jamaica, Egypt, Zambia, Kenya and Namibia included. They have the majority of English-speaking people outside the native countries, which serve as a second language.

(c) the expanding circle (English as foreign language) varieties include countries where English is not usually spoken; however, people learn it as a foreign language. They use the rules established by the inner circles and developed by the outer one. Examples of these countries are China, Russia, Brazil, etc. and the model shows that they have the lowest number of speakers.

The circles represent the type of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages (Kachru, 1985, p. 12), and inside they have different classified speakers. This model holds significant importance in the history of sociolinguistics and many scholar's view it as the most important and accurate model in this field.

2.5 Summary

This chapter has reviewed literature related to the study. Different scholars that have carried out research work on the nativisation of the English language have been cited. At the same time, the chapter has also endeavoured to describe the theoretical framework by Kachru, who coined the term “World Englishes” to refer to the diffusion of English that is seen in terms of three concentric circles; (a) the inner circle with first language varieties, for example the United States of America and the United Kingdom, (b) the outer circle where English serves as second language varieties and (c) the expanding circle where English serves as foreign language varieties (Kachru, 1985). These circles represent "the type of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages" (Kachru, 1985, p. 12).

CHAPTER THREE

Research Design and Methods

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology and design that were employed to study the nativisation of the English language at NUST. It is within this chapter that detailed descriptions of the research design are presented. It also presents the description of the population and sampling that was used, incorporating the detailed research instruments, procedures and the considered ethical issues with the combination of the tools used.

3.2 Research design

This study deployed a mixed-method research design, by applying a corpus-based study in nature, aimed at full-time Namibian students. As part of the qualitative data, conversations were recorded in natural settings, transcribed and described. Although it is a mixed method-based research, strong emphasis was based on the descriptive nature. Corpus representativeness is, “a generally assembled with a particular purpose in mind, and often representative of some language or text type” (Leech, 1992, p. 116).

Based on Creswell’s (2009) description of what a mixed methods research approach entails, the present study can be defined as mixed-methods research and not simply qualitative nor quantitative. O’Leary (2010) argues that quantitative research is often characterised as an objective positivist search for singular truths that rely on hypotheses, variables, and statistics, and it is generally large scale but without much depth (p. 105). To study this problem, the qualitative researcher used an emerging qualitative approach to acquire the collection of data in a natural setting to the people and places under the study, and data analysis that is both inductive and deductive.

This study was characterised to give an insight into the progressions that bring about the nativisation of the English language in Namibia, particularly at NUST. The significance of the mixed research approach of the study was founded on its ability to explain the nativisation of the English language that takes place at NUST and for find out the impact that the local languages have once they are in contact with the standard English. This includes the linguistic levels at which this nativisation takes place.

3.3 Research setting

The Namibia University of Science and Technology, Windhoek Campus, is the second most popular tertiary institution in Namibia, with a cosmopolitan ethnic group. The institution is comprised of six academic faculties. During the 2018 academic year, a total of 10 307 students were enrolled, of which 5 308 were males and 4 999 females. Among these, 9445 were Namibian students from all 14 regions. The majority of the Namibian students were from the Khomas region, (3 633), followed by the Oshana Region (1 000), Omusati Region was (997) and Oshikoto Region was (981); whilst, Kavango West it was (86); Kunene had (89) and Omaheke region had (87) and thus it had the least number of students (NUST Statistics, 2018).

3.4 Study population, sampling procedures and sample size

The population of the study comprised of students of the Namibia University of Science and Technology in the 2018 academic year. The research aimed at collecting data from speakers of Namibian indigenous languages at the level of phonology, syntactic and semantic, and the nativisation of the English language at NUST. The institution had a total of 9445 Namibian students enrolled in all the six faculties in the 2018 academic year.

The study followed the International Corpus English (ICE) methodology, which aimed at collecting and collating English both in the written and in spoken form, however, the focus was mostly on the latter. According to Rayson (2003), there is no minimum or maximum size of a corpus or specification of what it should contain. Numbers in brackets indicate the number of texts in each category, the corpus text was captured between July and August 2018, derived from Namibian students at NUST aged between 18-40. All students have English as their second language and they are comprised of male and female, from different Namibian ethnic backgrounds. The corpus is comprised of speech and a small fraction of the written corpora and it includes a wide range of age groups (18-40).

The ICE sample methodology table below illustrates the data and types of corpora that were collected in the study. The sample comprised of 53 dialogues and 23 monologues (NUST FM presenters), although this study mainly focused on the spoken corpora and 7 written corpora was also added. Therefore, a total of 76 spoken conversations were orthographically transcribed to compile the corpus, and 213 Namibian students participated in these conversations. Participants were selected through a purposive sampling method, with the focus of Namibian students.

Table 4. The design of ICE corpora is as follows:

Type of data			Sample size
SPOKEN	Dialogues (53)	Private (33)	Face-to-face conversations (15) Phone calls (4) Library talks (8) Tuck-shop talks (6)
		Public (20)	Classroom lessons (8) Broadcast discussions (5) Broadcast interviews (5) NUST students' general assembly (1) SRC president talks (1)
	Monologues (23)	Unscripted (8)	NUST Success Forum (8)
		Scripted (15)	Broadcast News (15)
WRITTEN	Printed (7)	Student Writing (7) Blogs and Success Story forum.	Student Blogs (7)

3.5 Research Instruments

To elicit the right information, the study used questionnaires, focused groups discussions, observations, and structured and unstructured interviews.

3.5.1 Questionnaire

This research instrument targeted the Namibian students only. Mhloyi (1995) explains that questionnaire is a document appropriate for analysis as it contains questions that solicit information (p. 14). Questions used were based on the general knowledge of the participants' nativised words and phrases they might know and use. To have a manageable number 45 participants were randomly

selected. participants were required to answer the questionnaire by ticking the appropriate boxes, listing words and answering some detailed questions. These are Namibian students from different departments who range between year 1 and year 3. Participants were given a time limit to return the questionnaires. The major advantage of the questionnaire was that it reduced travelling costs and participants were given ample time to complete them, however not all participants managed to return them as two questionnaires were not returned. Unfortunately, due to time limits, there were also 4 participants who seemed to be very busy and they took their time to respond to the questionnaire and the researcher had to urge them a few times.

3.5.2 Structured and unstructured interviews

Some of the English nativised words and phrases were collected using structured and unstructured interviews. The unstructured interviews were open and it did not have any predetermined questions but the researcher pursued a more conversational style and attempted to probe and develop questions on the spot. The responses were recorded for future use and transcription. The major advantage of the free conversation was that the informants displayed a reasonable approximation of how language is used in a natural context. The use of unstructured interviews during this research helped to neutralise this natural obstacle that is inherent when using structured interviews. Due to the fact that a person is aware that he/she is being interviewed and observed, this becomes difficult in obtaining casual speech. To have a manageable number the researcher randomly selected only 15 participants to interview for a duration of 20 minutes.

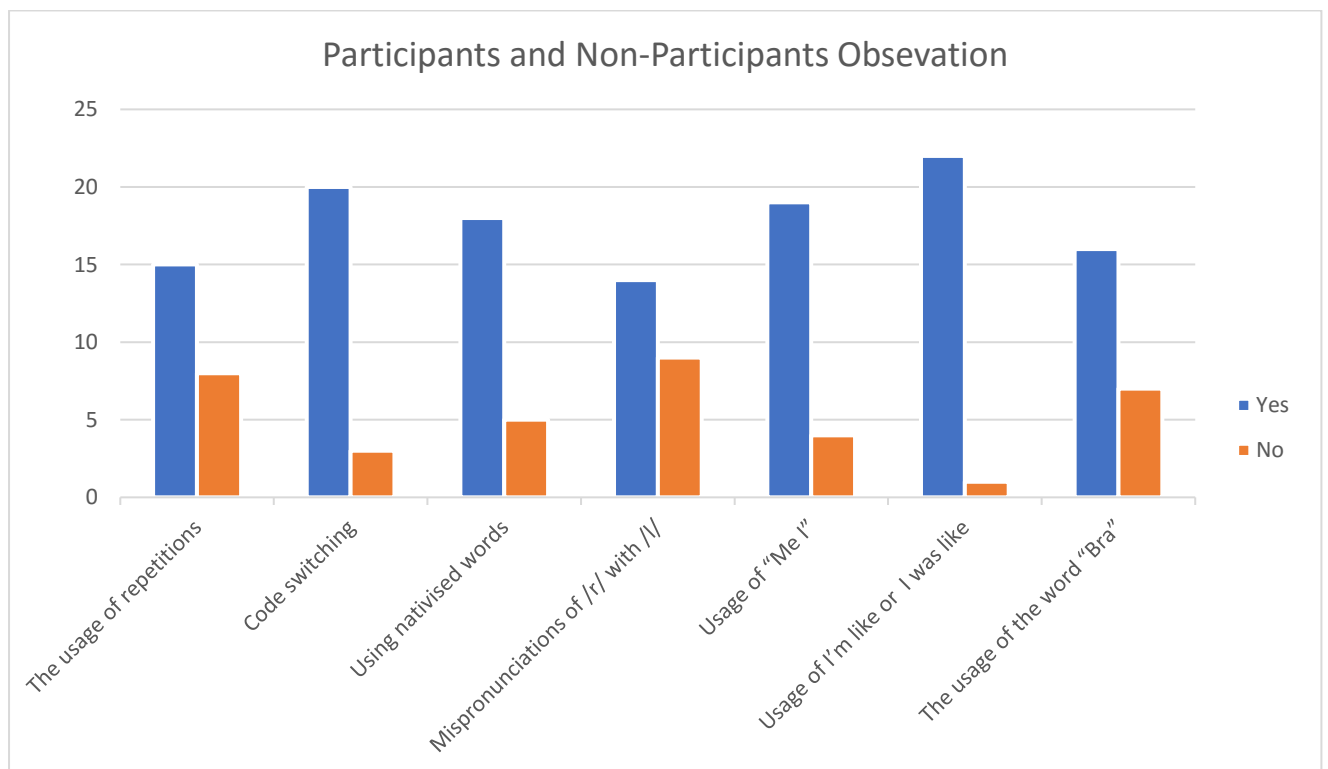
3.5.3 Participant observation

Mugenda (2008) points out that in the participant-observation method, the researcher participates in the daily life of the people under study, either openly in the role of a researcher or covertly in some disguised role, observing things that happen, listening to what is said and questioning people, over some length of time. Collecting data in the form of observation can pose a challenge, especially the very fact that when a person is aware that he/she is being interviewed/observed it becomes a formidable obstacle in obtaining casual speech, and therefore the participant observation technique was incorporated. The goal was to create a natural setting in order to gain cultural and linguistic empathy. The researcher observed and recorded 83 different conversations between the months of July to October 2018 on both, upper and lower campus at NUST; this was done in order to solicit the right information which was helpful to the research. The researcher used her discretion and chosen a manageable size of conversations, to ensure that the transcription process is executed to its maximum.

Table 5. The table combined both the participants and non-participants observed respondents.

Description	Yes	No
The usage of repetitions	167	39
Code switching	204	2
Using nativised words	188	18
Mispronunciation of /r/ with /l/	90	116
Usage of “Me I”	66	140
Usage of I’m like or I was like	198	8
The usage of the word “Bra”	200	6

Fig 4.



3.5.4 Non-participant observation

Apart from the participant-observation, the researcher also adopted the method of non-participant observation. “Non-participation observation is a relatively unobtrusive qualitative research strategy for gathering primary data about some aspect of the social world without interacting directly with its participants” (Williams, 2008, p. 561). The research did not require the non-participants to be integral members of the already existing students who are participating. They were observed from a neutral point of view. The advantage of this technique was that the researcher minimised activism. Activism is defined as researching from a self-point of view, where the researcher is part of the researched, in feeling and cause. Eight non-participants were observed, using the same check list, for the participants to find the trends of words used.

3.5.5 Voice recordings

Whilst interviews were mostly effective for data collection, voice recordings were also employed to capture data and conversations in the situation where interviews were not allowed during sessions. This included voice recordings, lectures, tuck-shop conversations, and normal conversations at the library where an interruption could disrupt proceedings. These voice recordings captured vivid and real-life contexts that were not possible with interviews. Therefore, this is the major strength of this method. However, the major problem was identifying age, which was not easy during data analysis, since only voices were recorded.

The study made 36 recordings. A total of four recordings collected were distorted and unusable because there were unclear conversation and the speakers were not audible. According to Coupland and Jaworsky (1997), phonological details in particular, are almost impossible to transcribe when the entire group is being recorded on one track (p. 20). Apart from the problem of distortion, it was extremely difficult to identify speakers’ native language from the recordings; however, video recordings such as on YouTube and NUST FM on the NUST Facebook page, were a major success.

3.5.6 Focus groups

These groups of participants comprised of people who are professionally proficient in the subject under investigation. These participants were mostly important for research to verify data collected so that only relevant data collected through the recording is preserved. Three focused group discussions took place to warrant the recording of conversations, and the main agenda was to discuss the

nativisation words and the impact of the nativisation of English. Each group comprised of 6 participants making it a total of 18 participants.

3.6 Ethical issues

It is the researcher's task to ensure that participants have a complete understanding of the purpose and methods to be used in the study, the risks involved, and the demands placed upon them as a participant (Best & Kahn, 2006; Jones & Kottler, 2006, p. 57). For the research, the NUST official ethical forms were given to the researcher, who filled them in and an ethical clearance certificate was issued prior to the commencement of the field work (see Annexure F). This certificate was presented and explained to all participants prior to the data collections. It is this ethical approval that gave the researcher the go-ahead to conduct the research. Additionally, to the ethics all citations in this thesis have been duly acknowledged.

3.7 Summary

After identifying the research setting, necessary arrangements were made to begin the actual observation and data collection. The research made use of the triangulation methodology, whereby not only one methodology was used. This was largely a qualitative research but nonetheless some data had to be quantified due to the responses which had to be counted, hence the numeric approach was inevitable. Various tools were used to solicit data such as questionnaires, structured and unstructured interviews, participant observation, and focus group discussions. In addition, the researcher also used non-observant participants, and these are the participants whom the research found to be good informants on the subject amidst the data collection process.

CHAPTER FOUR

Major Findings and Discussions

4.1 Introduction

Chapter four entails the presentation of results obtained through the research study. The corpus contains unrestricted and uncontrolled human-to-human discussions, which means that most of the aspects of the data produced were collected in natural speech settings. Jowitt (1991) enunciates that language and society develop side by side as social changes bring about linguistic changes. This implies that from time to time there will be an emergence of new words and new patterns of expressions that at the same time generate mutual intelligibility, possibly because such constructions enjoy the tacit knowledge of the members of the speech community or a substantial group of the members of the society of a broad social spectrum (Kujore, 1985; Jowitt, 1991; Salami, 1968). This chapter also discusses the findings of the study as they emanate from the data presented and analysed.

4.2 Analysis of data

Xiao (2017) asserts that a corpus is a collection of machine-readable authentic texts including transcripts of spoken data which form samples to be representative of a particular language or language variety. The researcher had to find the best method for conducting the study because it entailed live and recorded conversations. The corpus data was recorded using a voice recorder and the voice recording application on the cellular phone. On the NUST YouTube page, NUST FM and NUST Facebook page, there were several live conversations that were used in the current study.

The researcher participated openly in the daily lives of the participants for 6 weeks as an observer. During the discussions, the researcher actively engaged in an informal conversation with the students for the duration ranging between 20 and 30 minutes during the break by listening and questioning the respondents on their general view about life on campus and on some days, they discussed what they enjoy most during their free time and on weekends. This was conducted for three days a week for a period of five weeks. The researcher purposively sampled students from the following ethnic groups; Hereros, Coloureds, Khoekhoegowab, Zambezi, Aawambo, and Kavangos from various faculties as they engaged in an informal daily conversations. The researcher was able to find such participants who were extremely cooperative throughout this study and their cooperation facilitated the data

collection process. These participants were native speakers of multiple indigenous languages, which served as an advantage to this research. How large should the corpus be is not an easy answer, however scholars like, Krishnamurthy (2001) says “size matters”, but on the other hand scholars like, Leech (1991) think that “size is not all-important”. With these two different opinions, one can conclude that, the size for the corpus needed, depends on the purpose for which it is intended including other practical consideration such as, the provision of sufficient time to transcribe the data.

The recording and the transcribing was a major strengths, however, it also posed a major problem of identifying the age and the native language of the speaker, which was not easy during data analysis, since only voices were recorded. A voice recording was easy for individuals but there were technical problems in group situations. Each speaker was supposed to be recorded on a separate track; however, challenges were faced in trying to distinguish the different speakers. To this end, Coupland and Jaworsky (1997) proffer that a single recording for group interview will often result in data that is unusable for the detailed analysis that is necessary (p. 107). As it was mentioned earlier this was a corpus study by nature where questionnaires, interviews, checklist, observation and FGD were used, however the main data that was collected was oral corpus, with speech audios and a fraction of text transcription which was sometimes done manually to the complicity of the corpus, mainly in reference to the recordings of the participants, where, in addition to the interventions of the participants that resulted in joined and cross talk, there was a constant code change by the participants and even mixes between local languages. The only human transcriber was the researcher who focused on the orthographic level only since it has proven to be the ideal material for the type of analysis the research intended.

According to Robert (2004, p. 75), observation refers to the day-to-day activity of studying the behaviour and trends of human beings in real-life contexts. This is a systematic method of data collection that relies on the researcher’s ability to use his or her senses. The researcher used both overt and covert observation. Covert simply means that the researcher does not disclose him/herself to the society they are observing, whilst the “overt” approach does specify the nature of the study and how data is to be used.

4.2.1 The process of nativisation

Talking of the nativisation of English, Phillipson (1992) comments that it is the process by which English has been indigenised in different parts of the world, and has thus developed distinct and secure local forms determined by local norms as opposed to those of the native speaker (p. 198).

Participants could demonstrate the nativised words, phrases and terms, however, most of them could not explain how these came about; some said that the words they used were influenced by their indigenous languages and they just form them as a way of adding flavour to suit them and to make it sound better. There were a number of students who could confidently say that the English spoken in Namibia is forever evolving and new terms are constantly being formed; this is due to the fact that some words in English are not found in local languages and vice versa for example, “ntowele” is an Oshiwambo name that refers to someone who is not a firstborn nor last born. This supports the argument by Halliday (1985) that language is not only for used for communication and a tool for causing actions within society, language is also specific to every culture and therefor English spoken by NUST students has distinguished itself from the Standard English varieties.

Words were collected from participants as they casually chatted in and around the campus. The words were jotted down as soon as the researcher heard them on the audio recorder and the meanings were asked during the FGD.

- a) Harambee time – this phrase is derived from the concept that Namibians need to share.
- b) People are eating – this is mostly referred to the concept of people, mostly politicians mismanaging state funds.
- c) if you know you know – this term is said when something does not need to be explained but the picture it denotes carries the meaning.
- d) KeDecember – this term is derived from the December festivity when people party and have fun.
- e) Current situation- this denotes the situation that is currently happening, for example, a party, shopping, travelling or at the cinema etc.
- f) Bossa – this term implies reverence towards the person it is said to; it is a sign of respect and it also refers to a wealthy person.
- g) Zombi(es) – this is used to refer to politicians who merely say things and do not act upon them, namely unproductive politicians.

- h) Moege – this word refers to a coward, someone who cannot stand up for themselves.
- i) The weather is together – this is said when it is cloudy and the weather is cool and the sun is not so scorching; this phrase also refers to “everything is going well” especially when at a party.

Moag (1996) stages of nativisation proposed;

Stage 1. Institutionalisation and acceptance of English: English now has a prestigious position within the Namibian society, therefore it has been accepted and formally endorsed (policy of monolingualism). Despite it being spoken by less than 3% of the population of the country as a first language, the English language has been present in Namibia since 1915, after the Germans lost colonial power over Namibia.

Stage 2. Indigenising process: English in Namibia shows strong evidence of nativisation; as soon as English merged with the indigenous language, the initial adjustments and reforms occurred to suit the sociocultural nature of the Namibia community. As it currently stands, English has been recorded in Namibia since 1915. English has reached all corners of Namibia at different stages and steps; hence one can find that people from the Northern part and the ones from the South speak different types of English. This occurred when the language penetrated deep into the community and how it was viewed. The community became accustomed to the English language in order to communicate successfully and by so doing they nativised it, coined words, made transfers, and even re-created their own words. This is the reason why people from different parts of Namibia have their own unique terms that they have nativised and these terms and phrases are mainly understood by the people from the same community.

Stage 3. The process of nativisation: This is the case in Namibia where English is given the mandate to serve as the medium of instruction and also as an official language. The English language was given a boost and the status to be a mandatory language, and it now serves as the lingua-franca since there are more than 10 indigenous languages in Namibia. More and more Namibians found it vital to acquire a basic level of English to enable them to communicate successfully in English. English is used to penetrate the job market and helps create jobs in other domains. English serves an important function in the Namibian community, which has already taken effect. English is also used in classrooms, offices, educational institutions, homes, socially and in parliament, etc.

Stage 4. The institutionalised stage: This is where the language is found in literary texts and this is to expose itself to the rest of the world. There are a couple of texts written in Namibian English and these are items like newspapers especially headings, journals, pamphlets, advertising boards etc. This stage, however, needs more strengthening in order to bring awareness of Namibian English to the rest of the world. Currently Namibia does not have substantial written texts to market itself to the rest of the world. Moreover, at the moment Namibian varieties are heard on television, national radio channels, and other social media platforms. In relation to the current study, Namibian English is heard on NUST FM, in the NUST Brief that appears in the Namibian newspaper weekly, on NUST YouTube as well as on the Nust Facebook page.

The final stage is to wait for the nativisation to take effect and this occurs when it is often practised and becomes popular and common to everyone. Currently this is the case at NUST where the data reveals a substantial amount of nativised activities taking place among students. This is done unconsciously and effortlessly with no communication breakdown and at some point, some students were not even aware that they were setting a trend. The nativised words are commonly used and utilised in the correct manner, serving the purpose of effective communication.

4.2.2 Various levels of nativisation

4.2.2.1 Phonological nativisation trends

The phonological modifications which occur during nativisation affect the phonotactic structure of the English words as they are borrowed from English. This is due to the disparity in the phoneme inventory of the Namibian languages and English. During lexical nativisation, involving any languages, phonological and morphological processes interact, especially derivatives (Plag, 2003, p. 165).

According to Rodgers (1995, p. 80), during nativisation of terminology, the most important thing to consider is that words borrowed are always crafted in a totally different or somehow different linguistic environment. This then follows that the phonological and morphological structure of a foreign word, instead of being carried over as a unit into the recipient language, is adopted and then remodelled to take-up the phonological and morphological structure of the receiving language (Rodgers, 1995, p. 80). The phonological processes are phonotactics, occurring particularly during the pre-nasalisation of voiceless and voiced sounds. This is very insightful in investigating English words with voiceless sounds that are pre-nasalised, for instance /rent/ changes to become /lent/.

The recordings of the informal conversations of students yielded the following results; these are the words that were mispronounced by some Aawambo students on campus, and for this particular exercise the transcription process was somehow manageable because the researcher is an Oshiwambo speaker. This data was obtained through the voice recording and the use of the transcription process.

Table 6. English words with voiceless sounds that undergo pre-nasalisation change.

agree	aglee
already	alleady
bring	bling
class	crass
free	flee
group-work	gloopwork
library	riblaly
please	prease
rest	lest
river	liver
thirsty	fersty

It is evident that there are some ethnic groups, especially the Aawambo speakers, who have phonotactic constraints in English words that have the /r/ and /l/ sounds as they use these two sounds interchangeably.

Speakers of Oshiwambo language showed a constraint in pronouncing these sounds: /r/ as in “no one is ansueling /r/ those questions.”

- Whilst a Kwambi person says mblead (bread), /b/ becomes /mb/ as in the native language (omboloto) which means bread.
- The following are the English sounds that showed a phonotactic constraint among the Otjiherero speakers.

Instead of students emphasising the /d/ sound it becomes /nd/ as in “tonday its frinday”

/b/ becomes /mb/ as in “mbuying at the tuckshop”.

/g/ becomes /ng/ as in “our ngovernment is a joke”.

The following data was derived from the Nama/Damara speakers. The data was obtained through a voice recorder and the researcher manually transcribed the data. These were long conversations and only relevant information was documented. The most prominent evidence is that the Nama/Damara people, instead of saying /y/ they say /j/; for the /th/ they say /f/, and for /ch/ they say /ts/.

- a) Tomorrow will be my (befday.)

Tomorrow will be my birthday.

- b) (Fank) you for all your support.

Thank you for all your support.

- c) (Wif) due respect I need time to settle.

With due respect I need time to settle.

- d) The (tsaatis) were not laid.

The charges were not laid.

- e) All the (Juropean) countries were in support.

All the European countries were in support.

- If ju look at your left yust see there and ju will see the difference.
- But we are the juuf of tomorrow.
- Aai but it was yust an imagination.
- The jung lady that yust walked past, was my classmate.

The data was collected through a voice memo application on five different days when a group of participants from the Zambezi region sat outside a lecture hall, the tuckshop area and around the library. The data was manually transcribed and analysed using the phonological rules.

From the findings, it was found that the (θ) voiceless fricative poses a challenge to most of the Zambezian student as exemplified below:

- My braza (brother), was ill and he is no more, they wait until somebody dies and thatz (that's) when zey (they) took action.

- We are unhappy wis (with) ze (the) president, because he does not do anything regarding poverty.

Below are some of the words with unique pronunciations that were noticed through data analysis using the researcher's Voicea application and manually recording the frequency of words.

Table 7. Zambezian unique pronunciation of words

Word	Meaning	Frequency
Bot	Bought	6
Cudu	Could	8
Haav	Have	11
hosband	Husband	5
Ini	In	13
Naum	Name	5
Ofu	Of	16
Posti	Post	4
Seeni	Seen	3
Shooti	Shot	3
Tuuku	Took	5

4.2.2.2. Morphological nativisation trends

Morphology is the linguistic branch that studies the internal structure that a particular word follows, especially regarding morphemes, which is the smaller unit of a language. Syntax can be seen as the various ways in which a word can be combined to form phrases, clauses and sentences. In Namibian English, certain combinations of words, formations of words and expressions and contractions are distinctively heard in daily interactions. Morphological nativisation can be best conceptualised in the overall phonology-morphology interaction paradigm (Plag, 2003, p. 165).

A typical Namibian example would be "Me I". Although understood and acceptable in the Namibian context, this does not conform to SE usage; however, this sentence is commonly used by students. It is a repetition of the pronoun "me" and "I" which both denote a personal pronoun.

a) Verbs (Past tense)

Table 8. Was and were, are both in the past tense, however they are used in different circumstances

was	First person singular	
	I	I was annoyed.
	Third person singular	
	He	He was tired.
	She	She was there.
	It	It was a fun game.
were	Second person singular and plural	
	You	You were there.
	Yours	They were yours.
	Your	If I were in your shoes.
	First and third person plural	
	We	We were in awe.
	They	They were all happy.

The following data was collected over a period of three consecutive days using the Voice Memo application and transcribed using the Voicea application. Participants sat outside the library casually conversing and other data was collected during lectures.

- i) She were just looking at me funny. (She) third person singular (were) does not conform.
- ii) The taxi were just now there. (taxi) singular
- iii) You was with her. (You) second person singular (was) does not conform.
- iv) They was in a meeting. (They)third person plural (was) does not conform

b) Ways of asking questions: the data was collected during classroom observations.

- What does it mean, that is an archaic word? Instead (what does archaic mean?)
- What?
- Huh?
- Hmm?

These are all informal ways and they are even considered as rude to use them as a way of asking even when you need clarity; however, these words were used in the corpora and they did not interrupt the conversations. The “what” word is deemed a more aggressive and impolite way of asking, instead the word “pardon” which is generally acceptable and morally appropriate.

The same applies to “huh” as data reveal that often times students tend to use it without even realising that it is morally wrong. The acceptable way is to say “I beg your pardon” as this shows a sign of respect and being well mannered. The data revealed that “hmm” was also used a few times, and this is normally used when one needs clarity from the next person. It was used simultaneously with the “huh” expression as they both carry the same meaning. In this case all these question forms were constructed during the informal conversations between the students as they casually sit around the tuckshop. However, no one took offense and the conversation proceeded as a way of saying that it is normally acceptable and a norm.

c) The using of -ing

Grammatical English language errors are generally common, especially amongst non-natives speakers of the language, and NUST students are not an exception. English serves as a second language to the students, therefore the usage of the -ing rule that marks the progressive or present continuous tense posed as a challenge to many students. The be + -ing is used to form a continuous tense. When using it in a question form, the subject (they) and the auxiliary verb (be) usually change places. To form the negative, we put not after the verb be (I am not = I’m not; is not = isn’t; are not = aren’t). Errors may occur as a result of intralingua interference and the first language of the students could be the main cause of this. The students fail to distinguish the active forms from the passive ones although they both denote the same tense and aspect. Moreover, the students are unable to discern the differences between the present continuous and other verb forms, particularly the present simple and past continuous in terms of time frames.

- I missing this place I wish I could fly to be there.

- He was writing exams yesterday. (This sentence is in the present continues tense, however it was supposed to be in the past tense. “He wrote exams yesterday”)
- It was the moment everyone was waiting for. (It was the moment everyone has waited for)
- Are you all hearing me? (Can you all hear me)
- My uncle is managing a law firm in Okahandja. (My uncle manages a law firm in)
- You always killing it.
- Me putting them in risk.
- I am at a loss for words.
- I did my research and follow the work she does.

d) The use of ‘this’ and ‘these’

The following data was collected from participants as they sat in groups in front of the library and during the LRC meeting on the NUST Facebook Page. The students’ conversations were recorded and both data was manually transcribed. The data shows that the plural verbs are not marked and the rules are not applied, resulting in the inappropriate usage of the two terms “this” and “these”.

- i) Nowadays this taxi drivers are looking dangerous man, I’m afraid to take a cab in the night. Instead of (Nowadays these taxi drivers look dangerous ... to take a cab at night)
- ii) All these student were writing today. Instead of (All these students wrote today).
- iii) This guys are getting away with murder. Instead of (These guys are ...)
- iv) I don’t know if you guys knows these but our lecturers are not paid on a monthly basis. Instead of (I don’t know if you guys are aware that our lecturers are....)

e) Excessive conversation opener

These data reveal the occurrences and popular excessive conversation openers amongst the students. Although not linguistically incorrect, these openers are not typically used by the English native speakers, instead they converse without them. The excessive openers are underlines.

- You see, the other day he called me.
- It was like, hard to understand man.

- The way he likes his food, ouf it's too much.
- Guys can we please have one lecture.
- Soo how are you Betty?
- Guys listen, there is a new subject added.
- Clearly there's evidence she was the culprit.
- My dear it was the same here.
- And the heat?
- I was like, no man.
- But it was just today.
- Mummy dearest look nice in her dress at the wedding.

f) Will and Shall

The data also showed the inappropriate usage of will and shall. The traditional rules imply that shall is used with the first-person pronouns such as I shall or we shall and this is to form the future tense. On the other hand, "will" is used with "second" and "third" person forms such as you will, he will, she will and they will. The respondents did not mark the tenses to be used in conjunction with shall and will, therefore, making all these sentences grammatically incorrect. Therefore, English rules for shall and will have not been executed appropriately.

- This will better not be funny.
- I will come and pick you up.
- They will be coming to rewrite.
- It shall not happen that way.
- I think they shall not be ready by Friday as it a long weekend.
- I think I will not be able to finish on time.
- It shall be my pleasure to represent you.

g) New language phrases

The data showed a trend in the emerging of the acceptable "New language phrases". It is evident that with all these corpora terms and phrases, the English language has been nativised to accommodate the sociocultural character of the students. Some of these phrases can be classified

as idioms as their meanings are not always deducted from the words used, and as such, the meanings should not be taken literally. The following data was compiled from the questionnaires given to 45 participants.

- The day that was (This expresses the chains of events that occurred on that particular day)
- She doesn't humour me. (This simply means that she is not funny)
- If you know, you know. (Only understood by the person who had the same experience or have been there)
- Walvisbay doing us good. (An expression that express appreciation of the current state of mind)
- It's not easy. (Denotes the difficulty or tough time it takes to attain something)
- Let me just pack it here. (An expression used when one is loss of words and does not want to air their view)
- This is Namibia for you. (This is used to express a disappointing/ unsatisfactory situation)
- Current situation
- Elegant at its best
- Nature at its best
- I'm in need of this body/car.
- I'm in need of money/rest /peace.
- It's to die for. (its desirable)
- We are at it again. (it is used when one finds themselves doing the same thing)
- It is what it is.
- How is Harambee?
- Tsumeb did us good. (Expresses the good time one had in Tsumeb)
- She's on point / you look on point. (An expression used when someone looks good)
- Slay queens (Referring to a young beautiful and well-dressed lady)
- KeDecember boss (An expression that denotes parties in December during the festive season)
- My Boss/Bossa (Referring to a person with money and a higher status than you)
- She's fire. (A compliment given to ladies and expresses their good looks or sense of style)
- It's Harambee time. (Used in reference to sharing)

- My people / my clan (Referring to family members or friends)
- For the love of coffee. (Used when someone like something, like in this case is coffee)
- Good vibes

h) Lack of supporting verbs

Participants were recorded, as they casually chatted during their break. The data was manually transcribed by playing and replaying the audio over several times. There are numerous helping verbs in the English language, however data presents that students do not use them. Helping verbs found in the English language include; is, are, do, does, will, would, shall, be, have, has, am, were and was

- Thanks for () support Annalisa. (the)
- Come look/see. (and)
- His response was so quick, () you bored? (are)
- () Enemy of progress we see you. (the)
- I'm a violinist I play () violin. (a)
- Let's go () have fun (and)
- () Namibia () () never a dull moment. (in) (there) (is)
- We () together. (are)
- Its () give and take situation. (a)
- Do you want () radiant and () beautiful skin? (a) (a)
- Our lecturers are not paid on a monthly basis they () paid per hour. (a)

i) Generalising of the use of "them"

The pronoun them is overly generalised to the point that it has now become an acceptable term. The pronoun "them" is used as an object of a verb or preposition, or referral of two or more people, or a thing which has been previously mentioned in the conversation. In the data collected, "them" is used to steer away from specifying the object in discussion. The usage of this pronoun is commonly used and acceptable, and it does not even impend the flow of the conversation. All participants seemed to understand what was communicated to them.

- Thanks for them birthday wishes guys, you made my day all.
- I want them shoes maan!
- It was them boys who made noise past our class.
- Girl! them braids look good on you.
- He must be proud of them marks he obtained.

j) The overly used the term “so”

The conjunction “so” is often overly misused. The data below was derived from the conversation of students during their casual interaction around the campus. The usage of “so”, is used as a coordination conjunction and it can be replaced with “therefore” as long as it does not change the meaning of the sentences. This conjunction shows the effect and it can be used to combine two clauses. The data shows that the coordination conjunction “so” is overly used and it is not relevant in some instances.

- Our school fees are going up, so (therefore)_we need to be responsible in the sense of are we willing to do that or are we going to find a solution, but I’m sure with the new brains that we have we would be able to do so. (It is used in reference to a prior information)
- Absolutely fine with me, so we can go together later. (Here it was executed correctly)
- It was just so so, I can’t explain it. Instead of (I was somewhat confused, I can’t explain it)
- His response was so quick, you bored? Instead of (His response was very quick, you bored?)
- It was so cool to be around her. Instead of (It was cool to be....)
- I’m just so excited. Instead of (I’m just excited)
- So how was it? The “so” at the beginning of a question comes as a follow up question to a prior conversation.
- It was so depressing yesterday. Instead of (It was depressing yesterday)
- The lesson was so boring and long. Instead of (The lesson was boring and long)

k) The prepositions in, at, on, for, of

The following data was transcribed using the Voicea application and it was compiled from a combination of phone call conversations and face to face conversations. These are the common prepositions that were often misplaced during the conversation among students. In some instances, one can say that the effect of the mother tongue has some influence in the usage of the prepositions as in many instances the wrong prepositions were used. Prepositions such as at, in, to, of and on, denote the positions of an object in relation to the rest of the sentence. They link nouns and they are usually placed in front of a noun or a pronoun and they are never followed by a verb, for example, "The cat is on top of the wall".

- I'm now afraid to take a cab in the night. (at)
- I'm at campus right now. (on)
- Congratulation for your success my dear. (on)
- Let's go at the mall on Friday guys. (to)
- I was in the bus when you called. (on)
- The president for Ghana and China. (of)
- It is me putting them in risk. (at)
- I'm interested on joining the gym. (in)
- I work here now for the Mining and Process Engineering. (at)
- It's true I have experience for this things. (in).

Words were collected from participants as they casually chatted in and around the campus. The words were jotted down as soon as the researcher heard them on the tape and the meanings were asked during the FGD.

1. Harambee time – this phrase is derived from the concept that we Namibians need to share.
2. People are eating – this is mostly referred to the concept of people, mostly politicians mismanaging state funds.
3. if you know you know – this term is said when something does not need to be explained but the picture it denotes carries the meaning.
4. KeDecember – this term is derived from the December festivity when people party and have fun.
5. Current situation- this denotes the situation that is currently happening e.g. a party, shopping, travelling or at the cinema etc.

6. Bossa – this term implies reverence towards the person it is said to, it is a sign of respect, it also refers to a wealthy person.
7. Zombi(es) – this is referred to politicians who merely say things and do not act upon them, namely unproductive politicians.
8. Moegue – this word refers to a coward, someone who cannot stand up for themselves.
9. The weather is together – this is said when it is cloudy and the weather is cool, no burning sun, this phrase also refers to “everything is going well” especially when at a party.

4.2.2.4 Vocabulary

From the data collected these words were compiled from the questionnaires from participants, and the conversations of various groups between students on campus. The researcher recorded the live conversations, at the tuckshop and used a voice recorder to record their conversations and manually transcribed the data. This was done to retain a natural setting for the conversations. The table below explains the words in context and their actual usage during the conversations by participants.

Table 9. Vocabulary

Aai - really	<p>The word “aai” Is casually used in conversation to reassure the point made by both the speaker and the listener.</p> <p>Student 1: The examples that were given yesterday in class are meant to be used also in the assignments!</p> <p>Student 2: Aai! But I did not used them.</p>
Braai - barbeque	<p>Braai is a common Namibian word that denotes meat grilled on charcoal and its associated with parties and people having a good time.</p>
Chester - show off	<p>Chester is referred to a person who is boastful about his/her appearance, it may be the way they speak, walk and carry themselves.</p> <p>Respondent a: That boy is now a chester man.</p> <p>Respondent b: He mos made lots of money last year.</p>
Cuca shop – small shop that sells beer, sweets, bread and sugar	<p>A small shop erected between houses or normally a room with an opening facing outside the house boundary/wall. In most</p>

	<p>cases a customer buys through the window and just requests what they are looking for. This place usually sells cigarettes, matches, salt, sugar, bar soaps, candles etc.</p> <p>Lorna: there are soo many cuca shops now in our street you.</p>
Dodge - running away /hiding	<p>A word that means hiding or running away.</p> <p>James: Hahaha! I saw you dodge class earlier?</p> <p>Peter: Lol no man I had other commitments.</p>
Fast fast - now	<p>This expression is used to inform the person you are in conversation with that you will be with them now, however the literal meaning is in a while they must just hang on.</p> <p>Student 3: Let me go and collect my materials Bra!</p> <p>Student 3a: That place is full you!</p> <p>Student 3: It will not take long, I will do it fast fast!</p> <p>Student 3a: Ok sharp!</p>
Gwaii - cigarette	<p>This word is commonly used amongst the Afrikaans basters and coloured community, it's a term used for cigarettes.</p> <p>Student 4: Gee my gwaii man? Give me a cigarette?</p> <p>Student 5: Herso! "Here take".</p>
Jitta - young man	<p>This term is popular amongst the Afrikaans speakers, it refers to a young man.</p> <p>Student 6: He was mos with that Jitta!</p> <p>Student7: Vaar Jitta? "Which young man?"</p>
Jive - based on the context (dance or a taxi)	<p>This word is ambiguous and one needs to put it into context to understand it.</p> <p>1. It could mean dance</p> <p>2.it can also mean a taxi</p> <p>In this instance the participant was referring to the lift.</p> <p>Student 8: I only have jive money.</p>
Just like it – sign of disappointment	<p>The phrase denotes disappointment.</p>

	<p>Student 9: He took forever to just respond to your queries.</p> <p>Student 10: I know those people are always slow “just like it!”</p>
Kapana – barbeque meat	<p>This term has two meanings:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Denotes fresh meat being grilled on coals, 2. A place where this meat is grilled. <p>The word Kapana is freely used amongst all Namibian ethnic groups.</p> <p>Students 11: Let’s go to kapana guys for lunch, I’m hungry?</p>
Lekker - nice /fine	<p>This denotes pleasure, this can be referred to tasty food or a good idea and is popular amongst Afrikaans speakers.</p> <p>Student 13: Thank you kapana was lekker.</p>
Mos - reemphasise a statement	<p>The term mos is popular and is used informally among the youth; - it’s used to give assurance of a statement said. This word can appear in the middle of the sentence or at the end.</p> <p>Class discussion group 1.</p> <p>Student 14: Sir explained the term already mos.</p> <p>Student 14 a: Ou sorry I did not hear.</p>
Mula - money	<p>Mula is referred to money, this term is used by all ethnic groups.</p> <p>Student 16: Last year I made mula just by selling caps with my logo.</p>
Nee – assurance question	<p>This term is a reassuring question, and used at the end of a question.</p> <p>Class discussions group 2.</p> <p>Student 17: That was the process nee?</p> <p>Student 17a: I’m not sure but the chapter was not really clear.</p>
Now now – not immediately now	<p>These repeated terms are used to inform the person that they will return in a while. The repetition is just to give assurance to the person however it might not be the case. This can also mean after an hour or so.</p>

	<p>Student 11; We will be back now now!</p> <p>Student 11a: Aai that's what you always say you, we know your story!</p>
Nxa! - ok or fine	<p>Nxa - its originality is unknown - it means" fine".</p> <p>Tuckshop group of students</p> <p>A: Hi guys!</p> <p>B, C, D: Es nxa man!</p>
Tiger – 10 dollars	<p>Tiger refers to 10 dollars.</p> <p>Participant Q1: I remember when the cab was a tiger, now it's just ridiculous.</p> <p>Participant Q2: We will soon start footing from Tura!</p>
Toppie - father	<p>This word denotes the term "father" or old person.</p> <p>The guy on the phone in red: Is the Toppie home?</p>
Tsotsi - thief	<p>This term is also used in South Africa, it means "thief".</p> <p>The word was used by three participants casually conversing near the library.</p> <p>Boy 1. Yesterday two tsotsi wanted to attack me and I had to dodge you.</p> <p>Boy 2: Eish you are lucky bra they like to grab people's laptop bags. You were lucky to escape.</p> <p>Boy3: We are no longer safe, these days.</p>
Wheels – a car	<p>Two coloured girls</p> <p>Girl 1: My dad promised me new wheels for my bday, uh I can't wait.</p> <p>Girl 2: Did you already chose which one you want?</p>
Zac- money	<p>The term zac denotes money.</p> <p>The group of students seated next to the tuckshop after class</p>

	<p>Lady 1: Hi guys, can some buy me a pie please?</p> <p>The whole group laughs.</p> <p>Boy 1: No zac my dear sorry!</p> <p>Boy 2: We are all broke here! Hahaha.</p>
Zali- mother	<p>The term “zali” denotes mother or an old lady. Its antonym is Toppie.</p> <p>Lady 2: This year I don’t know what to get my zali on her retirement party.</p> <p>Lady 3: Last week I saw this lady selling nice outfits on insta, I will try to find her number for you.</p> <p>Lady 2: Aww thanks!</p>

4.2.2.3 Syntactical Nativisation Trends

The following was the data collected through interviews of Namibian students on the NUST FM and NUST YouTube page. Individual data was manually transcribed, and the researcher had to repeatedly play and stop the clip in order to illicit the correct data. The data was categorised according to different linguistics fields such grammar, lexical items, morphology and semantics. The data was compiled from five different interviews with different respondents that are on the NUST FM page and decoding was done through manual transcription.

a) The use of the present progressive for the perfective aspect of the present progressive.

- I’m writing a novel since 2017. (I have been writing a novel since 2017)
- It’s raining since last night (It has been raining ...)

b) The use of the present perfect tense for the simple past.

- Many lecturers have been promoted (Many lecturers were promoted last year).
- He have played well last semester (He has played well last semester).

c) Third person present tense is not observed.

- He drive very quickly that guy, he almost bumped me.
- We was always ready, to fight back and get what is ours.

d) Not marking the verb in past tense

As illustrated below, see the words underlined, verbs in brackets replaced the underlined words/verb. Students during their conversation and interviews failed they fail to mark the verbs in the past. By so doing they generated grammatically wrong sentences as follows.

- Yesterday, I were together and from there he disappeared. (We were)
- We go to the Wernhil the time you call us. (We went to)
- Basically, I grow up in the music school. (Basically, I grew up....)
- I think he is the only strong man at that time. (I think he was the only)
- Tell him I told him so. (Tell him that I said so)
- I talk to the director and she's like no! If u wanna register it's for free. (I spoke to the ...)
- I just look at her, like that. (I just looked at)

e) Be + verb + -ing extended to stative verbs (describes a state of being)

The data reveals that students do not adhere to the English language rules and the usage of verbs that are in the present tense, hence ignoring the Be = Verb + -ing rule. It seems like the words were directly translated from the local language into the target language that is in this case is English.

- He was feeling disappointed because many students did not do the assignment. Is hard man!
- I have so loved this hair.
- What a lovely evening it was indeed.
- I was just a totally disappointing to see those results.
- I am loving this weather.

f) The usage of wanna and gonna.

The data also revealed a phenomenon of the misuse of "wanna" and "gonna", which is the formal of "want to" and "going to". These are reductions and they are colloquial forms of English therefore appear more in spoken language. In addition, "gonna" is a future form. The data revealed that the respondents use the reductions to keep the flow of the conversation

and to sound more like the native speaker of the English language; hence these colloquial forms are mostly used in speaking rather than in writing. When the speaker used the reduction of “gonna” or “wanna”, they save time during their speech, because the words are not articulated fully, such as “I want to go home”, instead “I wanna go home”. The two sentences are correct: however, the latter is said faster than the first one.

- I wanna go there.
- I gonna do it with her later.
- Now they all wanna do it later.
- We all gonna come and see you.
- I’m gonna wait for you just here.
- Apparently, all group members were gonna meet today.
- The test was tough, I just wanna cry.

g) Adjective used with another adjective (adj and adj)

According to Peri (1966), the word formation pattern displays reduplication as well as redundancy. This occurs when a part of a word or a whole word or phrase is repeated to form new words and to generate a new meaning. For example, “I’m coming now now” reemphasises that they will be coming soon although it does not necessarily mean that very instant, it could be after an hour or two and even never. In this situation, the meaning of Standard English words is extended to accommodate local sentiments or concepts. The researcher recorded conversations of participants during lessons and during face to face interviews, and some data were derived from the questionnaires. The reduplication of the same adjectives mostly denotes the seriousness of the subject and it is mostly and commonly acceptable amongst the Namibian students at NUST.

- She looked super excited.
- I’m gladly happy to assist you.
- They were all feeling sad.
- After the graduation they were all very happy.
- The test was not too bad.
- The tuition is now extremely expensive.

- Lunch was very delicious.

h) Repetition of lexical items

These words are derived from the conversations that took place between the students. The data reveals that there are words that are constantly repeated by the students. This repetition of single words occurred several times amongst the students' conversations. Recently the trend of word repetition has developed among the youth and it has now become a trend. The meanings of the repeated lexical items in some case denotes the opposite and one has to search beyond the obvious meaning to get the actual meaning. The evidence is indicated by the results below:

- If you see, you see.
- If you know, you know.
- I can only play tennis small small.
- It's gonna be a short short break.
- I feel good I feel good trying to juggle work.
- What was your goal as the student's representative council as a president at NUST?
- I tried my best to make sure that everyone's opinion was listened to.
- Even me myself.
- We have the lovely lovely, beautiful SRC president for NUST the one and only.

i) Word-order (SOV OR SVO)

This data was derived from private conversations (phone calls) and the researcher recorded the data at the time it was spoken. Some data was collected through interviews of students on NUST FM and during the class discussions, the information was recorded and transcribed manually. The English language follows the SVO (subject verb object) order, however other languages follow the SOV order that is the (subject object verb) order.

The research also showed deviations in terms of positions of adverbs and adverbials.

- I. Will be seriously coming all together. Instead of (We will seriously be coming ...)

- II. It has been on my mind now for a while. Instead of (It has now been on my mind for)
- III. We should be proud of our achievement also. Instead of (We should also be proud of our achievement)
- IV. Tonight's dinner was very delicious. Instead of (Dinner was delicious)
- V. They all silently sat there. Instead of (They all sat there in silence)
- VI. Trust me, Queen me I'm in charge here. Instead of (Trust me, I'm in charge here).

j) Overgeneralising the word "like"

This phenomenon occurred when a second language English user chooses to use one form or construct sentences in one context and extend its application to another context where they are unnecessarily applicable. The study found that the word "like" has been overgeneralised and unnecessarily used. It is commonly used in delayed expressions and actual ideas, and it now fills the gap during conversations. Its traditional and grammatical roles are no longer observed as it has now taken a different role. Traditionally it denotes similarities between two or more objects. It is also used to give reference to an event or object, as in the sentence; "It's an ordinary day (like) last week Monday". The following data was derived from the conversation of students as they sat in groups casually conversing during their lunch breaks and also from clips of recorded interviews of students. From these data it can be observed that students misused the word "like", as a way to give it a new meaning. The term "like" is used to reduce the user's linguistic burden, as in the data below;

- I was like! No man how can you do that?
- Finally, we only have like, two three four weeks left of school and then its holiday, like all the assignments.
- Would you mind telling us like what kind of gifts did you got on air.
- All the years I have learned to, kinda like have a segment for myself.
- I was there jumping in the room like did they just call my name and then I was like give my sash give me my sash!

- Cause there are sponsors and they need to like exposure and that you know.

k) Countable and uncountable

The unmarking of the countable and uncountable nouns was also evident because at this level students could not differentiate mass and countable nouns. Often at times items that are not meant to be pluralised (mass noun) are pluralised as shown in the examples that follow. The plural and singular rule was not marked and the only rule that seems to apply here was the adding of (-s) to pluralise nouns. This is done without the consideration of the regular or irregular nouns.

- I feel your pains brother, we all fought for this country (Pain).
- Get on you two feets now (Feet)
- These news started to circulate since last night (this).
- Some childrens are rude my dear (children).
- There were less cars at the event (few).
- He gave too much informations (information).
- All the staffs are in a Monday meeting (staff).

In some instances, the infinitive marker “to” is undeleted, for example, “She made me to go”. Also, there is an insertion that entails the addition of grammatical morphemes, for example, “I can be able to go with you”. To understand the nativisation of English at NUST, it is necessary to realise that English is spoken for different purposes, in different contexts, and with varying proficiency levels. This is what Kachru (1985) calls the ‘cline of bilingualism’. During the data collection process, the researcher collected data on various days and times. This means that the English usage varied from time to time and day to day. The corpora were derived from either the students chatting casually during their free times on campus and others during their classroom discussions.

- l) The researcher analysed this data, by identifying the linguistic features that have some evidence of nativisation and that does not comply with standard English. The words in brackets are the substitution of the underlined word as gathered from the data collected data. The data was manually transcribed and derived from the NUST General student Assembly, that is posted on the NUST Facebook page. The data below contain repetitions, errors and missing articles.

“But (cannot start a sentence) now my issue with my (the) full time students going (attending) to (not appropriate) the part time classes (poses a risk) (of) is them (not relevant) being robbed at night, it’s again me putting them in (at) risk, to say that now you must come to class at night and take taxi late at home at nine o clock, (not relevant)”.

“That’s why your tests are written early in the morning to avoid the the the the (reduplication) to avoid implications of you guys being robbed and so forth, so it (s) very tricky”.

“The students said that (irrelevant) they don’t like writing tests on Saturdays, they don’t want to write tests on Saturday (repetition of the same notion), they rather write it on (inappropriate usage) another time, that’s when the lecturers go like (decided) all students write tests on Saturday so that we can accommodate the fulltime and part-time students”.

“Lecturers are paid according to (the) hours (they worked), they are not paid according to the time they sit in the office for a month and you are getting a monthly salary, especially those do like (who) lecture”.

“I feel like if we have a lot of lecturers or people that are that are that are (reduplication) volunteering or junior lecturers then this problems would (could) be solved”.

4.2.3 Standard English and Language Contact

As the analysis shows, due to the multi-ethnic nature at NUST, students find themselves using borrowed words as well as mixing the English language with their indigenous languages; this was observed during their informal interactions around the tuck-shop and on and around campus. Students of the same ethnic group tend to use more of their local words for example, the Oshiwambo students say; “What time are you guys gonna be free shaashi (because) I want us to go koWernhil? (ko = to)”. It is clear that students relate on different linguistic levels. Within a mixed ethnic group, students seem to be more conscious of the words and terms they use as if to say that the Coloured peers or Herero peers that might be next to them would not get the context should they integrate some Oshiwambo words or Afrikaans words and vice-versa. Therefore, language contact is responsible for the world’s vast linguistic diversity, and when speakers of different languages interact their

languages influence each other. Language contact brings about the phenomenon of borrowing, bilingualism or multilingualism.

According to Jerkins (2000), vocabulary, grammar, spelling and pronunciation, are the four main criteria for Standard English.

- a) With the vocabulary, however, American and British English differ in expressions though it might be the same concept.

Table 10. This table illustrates the variation of words in different countries, namely Europe, America and Africa.

BrE	AmE	NamE
Traffic lights	Robots	Robots
Gun	Rifle	Gun
Form	Grade	Grade
Driving licence	Driver's license	Driving licence
Sweets	Candy	Sweets
Trainers	Sneakers	Takkies
Queue	Line	Line
Flat	Apartment	Flat
Lift	Elevator	Lift
Zebra-crossing	Crossway	Pedestrian-crossing
Football	Soccer	Soccer
Holiday	Vacation	Holiday
Autumn	Fall	Autumn
Children	Children	Kids
Loo	Restroom	Toilet

According to the founder principle Mufwene (2001, pp. 28–9) states that “The languages which can be expected to be particularly influential in language contact scenarios are those spoken in the early days of a community, the main influences of English language contact in Namibia is Oshiwambo, Afrikaans, Herero, Nama/Damara and Rukwangali”.

Melchers and Shaw (2003) state that during the 18th and 19th centuries publishers and educationalists defined a set of grammar and lexical features which they regarded as correct, and the variety characterised by these features later came to be known as Standard English. When the Standard English came into existence two varieties also emerged and they widely differ in pronunciation, are very close in grammar, and are characterised by small but noticeable differences in spelling and vocabulary. During language contact, creole, pidgin or code switching are the common outcomes (Gunnel and Shaw, 2011).

Borrowing, multilingualism and codeswitching are inevitable during language contact, and often this occurs when two or more speakers are from a different language background. This may sometimes involve a single word or a whole clause, for example, one respondent had this to say: “The government is relying on China these days, check the news”. Namibia is a multi-racial society, with English as its medium/official language but which also serves as a lingua franca. In most cases students use borrowed words, especially amongst those who share the same language; however, the researcher observed that in groups with multiracial students, borrowing occurs.

Borrowing

When different languages come into contact they tend to take words from one another, and these become part of the new vocabulary and this is known as linguistic borrowing. The term borrowing can occur in the sound pattern, word pattern, linguistics material, syntactic patterns or grammar, etc. This is a way of acquiring new words in a language, and this involves re-modelling of the morphological and syntactical structures of the receptive language. Crystal (2003) asserts that the English language is an insatiable borrower, and the current English vocabulary is filled with more than 120 other languages (Nordquist, 2019). Borrowing in GhE is generally an external lexical process that has been found to be common in many languages (Ngula, 2014, p. 182).

Different NUST communities all have their version of English which is affected by their first language. Thus, NUST acts as a place where different ethnic groups of people merge, who in the end have to use

English as a language of communication. For instance, a group of students were at the tuckshop and they seemed to enjoy their time together discussing random topics. One more student joined the group and as he joined the others, he said “sup guys” and everyone else responded “nxa maan”. The word “nxa” is a Nama/Damara word that means “fine” or “ok”. However, this term is now commonly used as response to the casual greeting on campus. Another word that was evidently used is the word “guy” and it does not only refer to man but it is used simultaneously for both gender man and woman, and even a boy can be addressed as “guy”.

Table. 11. Loan Words

Words	Meanings
aweh	wow
babalas	Hang over
babe	Honey/lover
boerewors	sausage
bossa	boss
bra	friend
Broer/bru	brother
yep	yes
checka/bona	look
cherry	girl
Chop	eat
currently	now
Dop	alcohol
Eish	sigh
guys	people
Haibo	yes
Hola	hi
howzit	How is it?
ja	yes
lekker	nice
Nxa!	Nice/fine
passop	beware

sharp	ok
Sup?	What's up?
takkies	trainers

Analysis of the general formal writing of students: Student blogs

The following extracts were written by different Namibian students on the NUST student blog page with the aim of analysing the linguistic features of the students. The aim was also to find the nativised features that are formed through the usage of English as a medium of instruction and having it as a second language, and how this affected the Standard English. As much as it is a fact, language contact and mixing are phenomena that are inevitable. Linguistic divergence is caused by contact between different speech communities.

In the examples below, the underlined words or phrases are nativised, including the morphological changes and the Standard English words are placed in brackets.

- a) God has entrusted me with a lot of responsibilities and being a mother is one that I do not take for granted. As a student and a mother my life is quite unique from most other undergraduate students around me.
- b) "You cannot connect dots looking forward, you can only connect them looking backwards. So, you have to trust that the dots will somehow connect in your future. You have to trust in something - your gut, destiny, life, karma, whatever. This approach has never let me down, and it has made all the difference in my life." Steve Jobs.
- c) Doing (conducting) an internship has to be one of the most exciting yet the scariest thing (exercise)a student has to do (go through). I am studying Transport Management and as part of my work placement I was given the (an) opportunity to do (conduct) my internship at A Van Der Walt Transport in Swakopmund. I started out on a contract of four months (four months contract) and this was later (which was later) extended to a temporary employee contract earlier this year.
- d) It is important that students have passion in their school work (studies) in order to excel. I believe passion devotes students (students who are passionate to their schoolwork are

devoted), bringing out all the energy that helps them to stay focused and keeps them away from distractions. Having (a) passion is as good as a journey navigated on the GPS, because the journey inevitably (will) reacheses its destination.

- e) In the 3rd. grade, a girl called Liz and the other kids (children) would laugh at me whenever I said the word “CHOCOLATE”. They would rub it in my face that I could not pronounce tʃɒk(ə)lət/ or “choklat” like normal (other) people do. It didn’t (even) matter that I was generally good at reading and writing or that I got praise from my teacher for being the best in diction (dictation) that darn word CHOCOLATE always got in the way.
- f) I am a postgraduate student and I (who) honestly believed at postgraduate level, working in groups would be as easy as (a) pie because everyone is now a mature student and they understand the importance of obtaining this qualification, right? Well, I was wrong! It still comes with a lot of headaches. Accommodating people's bloated egos and your own too, LOL, is not a walk in the park. Be that as it may, I have learnt to appreciate the beauty that comes with it. It is an opportunity to network and build new professional relationships.
- g) It has definitely not been an easy ride so (thus) far. (,) S (s)tudying and working at the same time is exhausting. Grinding to the bone. I just completed my first semester exams for a three-year course, and what a relief it is (not needed) to be able (delete) to breathe. I went back (returned) to school this year in order to strengthen my skills and abilities in my field of expertise, and (not needed) (new sentence to begin). (For)for the next three years, I will have to endure the exhaustion (not relevant) and stand strong against the challenges I have been facing for the past few months.
- h) It is around (irrelevant) that time of the year when student life begins to be so (not needed) annoying and traumatic. Oh yeah, it’s winter, darn! (expression for emphasis). And on top of that I need to study to earn good grades. That automatically means that I need to face the cold nights wrapped in a blanket and perhaps some gloves, but will (would) I be able to page through all the loads (the books) of books with them on?
- i) I was giddy like a kid in a candy store whose parents have to tell her ‘NO!’ otherwise, if she has it her way, she will leave with the entire thing (ungrammatical correct), vending machines and all. To understand my excitement, you have to know the context, so here’s the short (shot)

of it: I am a NUST alumni and I moved to Cape Town to pursue my Honours in Film and Television studies. That should be enough to make you realise the craze I was going through.

4.3 Discussions of Findings

4.3.1 Nativisation process

Nativisation is the process of converting standard British English into a local English with non-standard features. These include, among others, distinctive morphosyntactic features such as the omission of articles from its noun phrases, variable use of copula in its verb phrases, variable use of verb concord and variable marking of tense and aspect (Baskaran, 2005; Platt, Weber & Ho, 1984; Wong, 1983).

The major discovery of the research was how the English language was viewed by participants and this has to do with linguistic identity. The Namibian variant of English at NUST is filled with a rich vocabulary, terms and phrases that need to be incorporated into formal settings. This is the way Namibian students at NUST can embrace the uniqueness of the English they speak and it is by Namibians. English serves as a second language and medium of instruction to all the participants and they have nativised the English language. The society has already adopted this type of English, however, it still needs to be formalised. Kachru (1983) argues that the acceptability of English concerning functional nativisation is measured in terms of range and depth. Range refers to “the domains of function” and depth refers to “the degree of social penetration of the language” (Kachru, 1983, p. 92). Abrar-ul-Hassan (2010, as quoted in Baumgardner, 1990) proffers that “the nativisation of a non-native language is a process that causes noticeable lexical, syntactic and stylistic variations in a language over time, primarily, under the influence of local languages in a society” (p. 31).

There are nativised varieties of English or the localised forms of Englishes in different parts of the world. Kachru (1998) analysed the process of the nativisation of English outside the Anglophone world and argued that English has attained “functional nativeness” in several regions of Asia, Africa and Europe. This functional nativeness is determined by the range and depth of a language in society. Range refers to the domains of function, and depth refers to the degree of social penetration of the language” (Kachru, 1998, p. 92). Namibia is an Outer circle country and the English language at NUST is used by students as a medium of instructions, and English also serves as a lingua franca amongst these students. Data revealed that the English language amongst the NUST students was always used although it has been made native. It is also evident that it now has a deeper depth; therefore, it serves

as a functional language. The depth of the English language at NUST has deeper roots because it is widely spoken by all the students, and by so doing they have functionally nativised it. These are the functions of the countries in the Outer circle as they have created a local variety of English therefore nativising the language so that the linguistic features are now a social norm. The norm developer nature occurs within the Outer circle countries such as Namibia which is caused by the continuation of codifying and general acceptance of the local varieties of English into the local innovation of the English genre. The English language has been modified to express local terms and norms. This is exemplified through words/phrases such as; “we are at it again”, “How is Harambee?”, “my bossa!”, “Elegance at its best!”, “my people”, “Tsumeb did us good”, “you are on point”, etc.

According to Abrar-ul-Hassan (2010), the questions of standard and wider acceptance of nativised varieties are relevant to the linguistic identity of the language user. On the other hand, the issue of the recognition of nativised varieties in the Anglophone world is also important for the speakers of the nativised varieties. Thus, the findings in this study show that to fully appreciate the use of words and their meanings in the Namibian context, there is a need to situate them in their proper sociolinguistic context. Namibia is a multilingual society and exploring the various lexico-semantic resources that reflect its hybrid character will enable us to comprehend the new English used. Following Moag’s (1996) stages of nativisation (stage one), the English language has been accepted in Namibia, therefore, it has been endorsed as an official language and the medium of instruction. The study has shown that all students are comfortable when conversing in this English variant, to the point of owning the language and making it their own by adding and deleting markers. In light of the foregoing discussion, Norton (1995) observes that language “is understood regarding its social meaning” (p. 13). Similarly, Lippi-Green (1997) referred to the issue of defining Standard English regarding one group and concluded that such a move “is the ordering of social groups in terms of who has authority to determine how language is best used” (p. 55).

Stage two: The indigenising process has been taking place and it is still taking place. Namibians from different regions create their flavour to suit their cultural settings and these words are acceptable and they do not impede the communication process. Some words are even derived from the Afrikaans language such as; “lekker” and “ja”, while some are solely and purposefully created to serve the purpose of communication. Based on Kachru (1985), Lowenberg (1984) defines nativisation as systematic changes in (a variety’s) formal features at all linguistic levels, which result from the use of English in new sociocultural settings, in contact with other languages, and the absence of native speakers of English”, for example, “I miss this place, I wish I could fly to be there”; “He was writing

exams yesterday”; “It was the moment everyone was waiting for”; and “Are you all hearing me?”. All these sentences are syntactically modified.

In stage three, the nativised words are used by more than one community, and there are sometimes links between words from different communities to another, for example, the word “bra” is used across communities and it is derived from the word “brother”. In stage four, Namibian English is slowly gaining momentum in mainstream writing although it is still in its infancy stage, that is, they are visible from the students’ blogs – for example, “but will I be able to page through all the loads of books with them on?”

In the final stage (five), the new variant has gained popularity and is continuing to do so, especially amongst the youth as they are the orchestrators of the trend. As Roger (1995) alleges, nativisation is a terminology that describes the crafting of borrowed words to suit different linguistic environments such as; “We are at it again”; “I’m in need of money”; “It’s to die for”; “Current situation”; “It’s not easy”; “If you know you know”, and “The day that was”. Besides, it follows the phonological and morphological structure of that language as it is the case in the Namibian English at NUST, which was adopted and remodelled. This is also in line with Kachru’s (1992) argument that the outer-circle countries are norm developers, including Namibia.

The English language in Namibia is not a native language; therefore, Namibian students at NUST have nativised to conform with the Namibian society. Due to the influence of local culture and languages, the variety of English used in Namibia has undergone many systematic changes. This variety of English follows rules that are different from the standard British English. Namlish, as it is known, can be called an institutionalised variety as it fulfils the four criteria proposed by Kachru (1992) for the existence of institutionalised varieties, namely;

1. An extended range of uses
2. An extended range of registers or styles
3. Nativisation of registers and styles, formal and contextual
4. A body of nativised English literature, marked linguistically as localised.

Kadenge (2010) argues that;

to describe Zimbabwean English as an inter-language is a purist position that has been consistently rejected by the pragmatist school of thought or the Kachruvian paradigm of world

Englishes which argues that the varieties of English in the outer circle communities (Zimbabwe included) constitute different Englishes in their own right that express independent sociocultural identities and whose legitimacy owes no allegiance to the so-called native speaker norms (p. 38).

4.3.1 Levels of nativisation

4.3.2.1 Phonological nativisation

English in general, has been nativised at different linguistic levels; this is due to it being used in a foreign society, meaning it's not spoken by native speakers. This is what created the different varieties of Englishes. This research partially focused on the phonological level, which is the level of sound patterns namely the difference in word patterns in different languages.

There is a substantial distinction between Namibian indigenous languages and the English language in terms of reduced speech, inflexion, linking and how words are stressed. In the case of NUST' English variant, the data revealed that the /mb/ and /b/, /r/ and /l/, /y/ and /j/, /f/ and /th/ to mention a few, are some of the sounds that are unique to each individual indigenous language. As mentioned by Makalela (2007), BSAfE pronunciation at the segmental (vowels and consonants) and the suprasegmental levels (that is the stress, intonation, prominence, etc.) is noticeably taken from a Bantu language background and marks a certain degree of phonological distinctiveness in African English (Gough, 1996; Hundley, 1963; Jacobs, 1994; Lanham, 1984; Schmied, 1991; Van Rooy & Van Huysteen, 2000; Wissing, 2002). This is to say that the phonological rules of a second language are highly influenced by the first language. There are certain sound patterns which do not constitute the English sounds while they do so in another language; this affects the way certain people who are not English speakers perceive sound letters differently, and such an example is found in the Otjiherero language where the /ng/ takes the place of the /g/ as in "government"; the same applies to the /mb/ for /b/ as in "boy". There are a limited number of vowels within the Bantu languages which are now causing the idiosyncratic (unique) pronunciation of English vowels. Milroy and Milroy (1999, p. 67) are of the view that spelling is the most uniform level of language use, and contrasts in this respect with regards to the variability of its counterparts in speech pronunciation. According to Makalela (2007), the phonological patterns within the Bantu languages tend to be retained in the educated variety of non-native English amongst speakers of Bantu languages (p. 137). In the BSAE, the consonant /r/ is transferred from the mother tongue; however, this is not the case in the Oshiwambo mother tongue,

where such /r/ trill sound does not exist. In the indigenous Oshiwambo language, there is no trilled realisation of /r/, hence the common error of muddling between /l/ and /r/ irrespectively. As data revealed, this was also the case with “river and liver”, “agree and alee”, “already and alleady”, and “bring and bling”. Therefore, in order to understand the actual inference, one needs to know the context of the word to avoid miscommunication, for instance, the words “free and flee”; although they only differ in the /r/ and /l/, their inferences are totally different should one not have the context in which the word is spoken than it could potentially cause a major miscommunication problem.

Makalela (2007) has also noticed a distinct change in the BSAfE when it comes to consonants such as the [θ] and [ð] consonants as in the word /thigh/ and /these/ that are pronounced as [t] and [d] respectively. The distinct changes of the consonant phonology in the BSAfE can be likened to the English spoken at NUST, and the research has revealed the constraint in the /d/ as in (danger) which became /nd/ (ndanger), /b/ as in buy became (mbuy), /g/ as in government became (ngovernment). The (θ) as in birthday is pronounced as /f/ as in (befday), (thank you) became (fank you) and (with) became (wif). For the Zambebian students who are Lozi and Subia language speakers, the (θ) as in (brother) is pronounced as /z/ as in (brozer), whereas they becomes (zey), with becomes (wiz) and the becomes (ze). Additionally, in the BSAfE, the consonant cluster /kl/ as in the word /clever or club, and including the glottal stop as in little /ttl/, and /tal/ as in total are pronounced as an ejection lateral affricate, /tl/ which are directly transferred from Sotho languages such as “tla tla” meaning (will come) in Sepedi language. On the contrary, as per the findings from the English spoken at NUST, the consonant cluster /ch/ as in charges became /ts/ and the /eu/ as in European became /j/ (juropean).

In conclusion and supporting Makalela (2007), this research showed prominent differences between African languages and the English language about the intonation, reduced speech, linking verbs and word stress. Therefore, Kleinhenz and Wissing (as cited in Makalela (2007), concluded that Bantu languages in South Africa have a phrase prosodic system hence they are to be categorised as syllable-timed rather than stress-timed in contrast with Standard English varieties (p. 69). This is to say that there is no stress in the Bantu phonological structure, therefore it places the lengthened tone in the stress of the last and only syllable, as in the word “determine”.

4.3.2.2 Morphological Nativisation

Morphology, according to Oz (2014), is the study of the internal structure of words and the rules governing the formation of words in a language. Often unconsciously, every speaker knows the rules

underlying the creation of words in their language. For example, the word *greatness* is made up of two morphemes, *bright-* and *-ness*, whereas the word *bright* is a free morpheme because it carries meaning. However, *-ness* is a bound morpheme because it does not carry meaning by itself. Morphology is the way words are structured to come up with meaningful components that form words. This linguistic branch deals with morphemes, which are the smallest units of language. Each language has its own morphology that constitutes words and their forms.

Data revealed that the use of “were” and “was”, pose a challenge to many students, that is to say, they lack the concept knowledge of its usage, for example, the first-person singular is unmarked hence the usage of (were) instead of (I). The present continuous tense denotes an action happening now, is unfinished or temporary action. On the contrary, the data collected does not follow this rule. The second person singular and plural is not marked. This area shows that like other non-native varieties, Namibian English usage is different from SE, for example in the expression, “How is the morning?” However, according to Makalela (2007), the Black South African English extends the progressive aspect to stative verbs, such as in (a) We are belonging to the new South African; and (b) I was not knowing his name; where the verb *belong* and *know* belong to a category of verbs called statives. Given the examples above in the Standard English varieties, such word formation is not permitted because of the */-ing/* suffix that is used with a stative verb. However, as time progressed, this rule was relaxed and it became acceptable such as in the example; “I am having a party”, where the word ‘have’ can now be used with non-possessive abstract objects. This was also observed amongst the Namibian NUST students not observing the present continuous tense, the BSAE tend to not observe standards norms in favour of indiscriminating the usage of the progressive aspect, such as “I am also having a diploma” or “my mother is having 3 children”. This could be viewed as an occurrence of over generalisation strategy, that is also used by children when acquiring their first language. Thus, the fact that the progressive denotes an ongoing action implies that it is associated with dynamic verbs.

The traditional conceptualisation of stative verbs is that they are verbs that denote states as opposed to dynamic verbs, which denote action (Huddleston & Pullum 2002). Marungudzi (2010), asserts, the deletion of the *be* auxiliary, the occurrence of the feature can be attributed in general to inadequate mastery of the second language by the Zimbabwean speakers of English, whoever in standard English a verb in the progressive aspect is usually preceded by an auxiliary *be* or any of its alternative forms such as *is*, *was*, *am* etc. NUST students showed similar sentence structures such as in the sentences; “what a lovely evening it was indeed”, “he was feeling disappointed because ...”. Marungudzi (2010) showed the following examples “as you might be knowing, lecturers...” and Opposition sympathisers put it on social media showing pictures of boxes saying these were concrete evidence that they were

containing pre-marked ballots (Spoken text 66b) (p. 94). This observation it is evident that ZimE and the English used by NUST students deviates from Standard English conventions in its treatment of stative verbs to a considerable extent. Makalela (2007) and Van Rooy (2014) posits the same outcome on the general use of the progressive aspect in BSAfE.

Reduplication of expressions is a way of emphasising a situation; the speaker is trying to gain trust from the listener. Expressions like “I’m coming now now/quick quick” does not necessarily mean in a short while; it can mean after two or even three hours. It is amazing how some words are directly adopted but the meaning is used in a rather different context as is the case with Namibian English.

The formation of new words and phrases is a result of language contact, where new words are formed to represent new thoughts and ideas. In Namibia, these concepts are attributed mostly to the Afrikaans language such as; *chester* which means a show-off, *mara* which means but, *lekker* which means nice/good/fine. Some words are nativised by adding letters at the end or the beginning such as; *ka-thing*, *KeDecember*, *isaFriday*, as well as the addition of end letters as in the word *bossa*; these all occurred when local indigenous language came into contact with other languages be it Afrikaans, English or other Bantu languages. In his linguistic research, Van Rooy (2013) concluded that the BSAfE grammar can be likened to that of the English native speakers because the differences are minimal, such as in some of the new grammatical sentence constructions. These unique differences in the BSAfE grammar are the new variant that is characterised with this new variety, although they are also shared by other New Varieties of English elsewhere especially in the African continent, Namibia included.

4.3.1.1.1 Syntactical nativisation

This is the grammatical rules that govern word order in sentences, unlike morphology that looks at the smallest unit of words and how they are formed into complete words. Syntactic nativisation is how words and phrases are formed, which brings about the syntactic nature of any given language; the new Namibian version at NUST is not an exemption. The Namibian English at NUST’s syntactical structure differs from the SE. Data from the current study revealed that the Namibian variant at NUST is popular amongst the Namibian youths. Schmied (1991) argues that African varieties of English are sequencing of tenses in complex and compound sentences deviates from normative English varieties. In relation to the case of the tense sequencing, Makalela (2007) revealed that the Sepedi native speakers show that only the verb in the first clause is marked for the past tense, the following is an example that is derived from his data; (a) “They took one frog and go with it home”. (b) “Many more guys came to me and pretend as if they are my friend”. On the contrary, the data from the NUST students revealed that the past tense verbs are not marked. For example, (a) “Basically I grow up in

the music school” (b) “I think he is the only strong man at that time”. These examples show that the whole sentence or discourse that marks narrative tense is not marked by verbal inflexion. This evidence supports the notion that for Bantu languages, when it comes to narrative sentences, the past tense of the subsequent clauses is not marked by verbal inflexions. There are also differences in the linguistic representation of the reflective in the differential reasoning between the Bantu languages speakers and the native English speakers (Makalela, 2007).

The English variant at NUST transfers meanings directly, for example (a) “current situation” is a phrase that is used to describe what is happening currently; however, this could also denote an action that occurred last year at the same time or even last week at the same time; (b) “If you know you know” is an expression that is used to express the knowledge of a certain occurrence or a situation; this can also be a picture. This phrase is a repertoire of the same words and reduplication, although it denotes what is happening and it also denotes a past action or an occurrence in the past. Its meaning is mostly meant to be understood by the people who have seen it (picture or sight) before or have been in the same predicament or situation. According to Makalela (2007), to distinguish habitual and progressive aspects, the English language tends to use inflexions and an example he gave was; “I’m walking in the bush” which denotes a progressive action, and “I walk in the bush” which denotes a habitual action. However, the African Bantu languages including those that are Namibian strictly use verbal arguments to articulate these aspectual meanings. Therefore, it is for this reason that Makalela (2007) states that the morphological differences between habitual and progressive actions in the African Bantu languages are blurred and unclear. The examples that Makalela (2007) gave was, “Man is eats porridge” (habitual) or “A man is eating porridge” (progressive). In conclusion, data revealed the hyper clarity use of the word “like”. Although the term is not grammatically wrong, it is not acceptable in the present-day native varieties of English, for example, “I was like, no man...”, “I was there jumping in the room like did they...”, “would you mind telling us like what kind...”?.

Since English is not native to most Namibians, one could say that some of the grammatical differences like the use of the subjunctive can be attributed to the learning environment. If we look back, Namibia was formally called South West Africa and it had Afrikaans as its official language and English was only minimally taught, thus most older generations did not have access to the English language up until independence. Kachru (1985) believes that what’s happening is that English indeed is becoming the international language except that now it’s “Englishes”; this is due to many varieties of English in the world.

4.3.2 Language contact vs standard English

The Kachru's theory is a three-group model which entails (a) English as a first language for the native speakers born in an English-speaking country and where English is the mother tongue. (b) English as a second language (ESL), this group is for the non-native speakers who have learned English parallel to their mother tongue; such as the case in Namibia and lastly (c) English as a foreign language (EFL) - this is for the non-native speakers who learn English by choice as English is not commonly used. By understanding these three groups, it can be seen that Namibia falls in the category of ESL where English is the official language and all children learn it from the early age of seven or even earlier, depending on their immediate community (rural or urban area). Henceforth this research has focused on the second group, English as a second language (ESL). Halliday (1985, as quoted by Makalela, 2007) argues that "Linguists view language not only as a collection of structural units carrying meanings but also as a tool for performing certain functions according to social values and norms which are specified by culture" (p. 138).

Although Namibia is classified under the Outer circle, English is the first language for a very small group of Namibians; nonetheless, it is the medium of instruction and the official language. According to Kachru (1985) a nation like Namibia is one that challenges the norms and develops them to conform to their socio and cultural environment, which is formally known as "nativisation". In Namibia, when the local languages get into contact with English, certain grammatical deviations occur to suit the users and the incorporation of some English features bring forth the new English variant, mainly evident in the vocabulary and the grammar, as new words and phrases are formed. This notion is supported by Ndambuki (2013, p. 103) who posits that "Languages in contact influence each other at almost all linguistic levels", his focus was on the phonological changes occasioned by the repair strategies operating on loanwords in the Kikamba language. There is a constant influence of the local languages on English as a second language as certain local language patterns such as; phonological, grammatical and lexical aspects are mostly transferred into the new English variant. The same linguistic differences have been observed at NUST where students altered the English language and established their new variants in order to reflect their own situation and experiences, and due to the mother tongue influence this is unavoidable.

English orthography is highly standardised. The standardisation of the written language is easiest to demonstrate concerning orthography. About 2 billion people around the world speak English. Although they use the same language, that is English, if we closely analyse it, there are many differences between the different varieties of English that are used in different societies. The

differences are phonological, orthographic, and syntactic as well as semantic and pragmatic (Mahmood, 2009). The English language in Namibia has been established and due to its status as the official language, this prestigious position has caused it to be nativised and eventually in the future it will form a part of Namibian identity although it is neither a first language nor does it have a second language status. The way words and terms are formed, sometimes through direct translation from the English language is evident, for example wheels – cars, and where the word “kapana” means a small pan.

The study shows that English in Namibia has developed endonormatively whereby it tends to look inward and depends on local forms and customs; this is to say that the nativisation of the language was aspired to by the society and culture of Namibians and this differs from the Standard English. This is ascribed to the fact that one important feature of language is to communicate meanings which are cultural, societal, grouping or community-specific. These meanings could not be conveyed by following the norms and codification standards of other cultures (Sebba, 2007, p. 34).

Language contact also causes structural nativisation which is the new innovative form and structure of a language, for example in this instance we have Namibian English. The present research shows that English in Namibia has developed endonormatively, where the rules applied to it differ from the British Standard English. Language contact brings about bilingualism when two or more languages come into contact; however, this causes language death. Crystal (2000) explains that it occurs when a weaker language is overshadowed by the dominant one. Students have used the already crafted and remodelled words. This research contributes to the understanding of the Namibian English nativised variant spoken at NUST in general and the position of English in an ethnically and linguistically diverse context that is particular to the Namibian society. Ngula (2014) argues that variation and linguistic changes occur at all levels of linguistic analysis caused by the role of language contact.

Regarding the question of standardness, “British English, Singapore English or indeed English as an International Language can also be standard languages, then it makes sense to regard a speaker of one of those codes as a native speaker” (Davies, 2003, p. 214). Similarly, Finegan (2004) also argues that “no single variety of English can be called the standard” (p. 16). With this background, it is fair to argue that the Namibian students at NUST are native speakers of Namibian English. This English variant is more than a language for the participants about their social identity and socialisation. Ndambuki (2013, p. 9) asserts that “The effect of languages in contact has raised a lot of interest among African as well as non-African linguists as they endeavour to discover how the indigenous

languages adapt the new words". In support with Kasanga (2006) and Makalela (2007), the study agrees that the BSAfE has a distinct character from the Standard English varieties in terms of pragmatic and discourse features, topic promotion devices, gender markings, modality markers and circumlocution.

Weinrein (as cited in Ngula, 2014, p 185) asserts that when two or more languages come into contact, mutual influence is eventually inevitable, thus the outcome is what he refers to as interference phenomena (p. 185). These linguistic changes may occur in areas such as phonological, syntax, semantic and lexis. Moreover, there are obvious influences of other languages within the diverse societies such as Ghana where English is used as an official language and is used along other indigenous languages, and NUST students are in the same predicament, therefore multiple language contact occurs.

4.4 Summary

In this chapter, a summary of the findings and the discussion has been given in line with the research objectives. The chapter has also compared and contrasted the findings with other related research findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Summary

Kachru's theory of the three-circle model failed to consider the growth of English in the world, such as in Namibia and other developing countries. It cannot account for the growing use of English, namely English as a lingua franca between speakers who do not share a first language (Mollin, 2006, pp. 41-42). English is now overwhelmingly widespread in international settings. It is the language of choice in international organisations, companies as well as the academic world (Katzner, 2002, p. 39). With this in mind it is fair to concur with Nwoko (2016) that the, localisation of the English Language in the environments where it is used as (L2) is now common, however there are new developments within the language due to its new status of being a L2 in the Outer Circle countries, therefore the British or its ancestral home has now to share the language. Some of the properties of the nativisation of the can be explained in terms of overgeneralising strategies that occur in second language acquisition (p. 126).

Contact with other languages and other dialectal varieties of one language is a source of alternative pronunciations, grammatical structures, and vocabulary (The History of English: An Introduction, 2012). This Namibian English variant at NUST is here to stay and it is Namibia's responsibility to develop the orthography and language rules to develop it fully in the main streams of formal education and offices.

5.2 Conclusions

Nativisation is a popularly used word in the world Englishes; it expresses concepts that are different and it is the process by which a language gains a non-native speaker. This is done to enhance effective communication, and this happens when a language which is used as a second language by a group of people and now this language is used as a first language by the children of those second language (Mahmood, 2009, p. 113). Sebba (2007, p. 34) describes one important feature of language, which is to communicate meanings which are cultural, societal, grouping, or community-specific. Nativisation is also known as indigenisation, acculturation or hybridisation. These are the linguistic changes that the English language undergoes as a result of contact with other languages in diverse cultural and

social settings of the Outer circle. Kachru (1985) defines nativisation as the adaptation of the English language into a local setting. This brings about New Englishes hence we find varieties of Englishes such as South African English, Palestinian English. etc. The linguistic changes such as semantic, phonology, style, syntactic shift and morphology occur during the nativisation process. This process happens when second language English users mould the English language to express facts, ideas and concepts that are relevant to their particular context and the local environment. This process takes place due to the transfer from the local languages to the English language to fulfil certain functions and the transfer of English to the new cultural environment and communicative needs. The second language English users need to adopt the language to fit in their new environment so that local concepts can be expressed Bamgbose (as cited by Ola-Busari, 2014, p. 239). English used in the outer circle leads the users to develop their norms and to recognise their own regional or national standard; this process is what leads to nativisation and consequently to the development of different varieties of English between countries as well as within countries.

The literature review showed that there are many English varieties of what is regarded as the Standard English, at the same time there are many new emerging new Englishes with also their varieties. The English language variation is a world-wide phenomenon that occurs when a language leaves its place of origin to another; it will surely be redefined to suit the social and cultural setting of the new place and Namibia is not an exception to such a phenomenon. There is no doubt that the state of the English language in Namibia is due to the nativisation process that it is currently going through and due to the various indigenous languages found in Namibia. If one considers the widely applied framework for the spread of English and its usages, Namibia falls under the Outer circle countries where English is undergoing nativisation and acculturation (Kachru, 1997). It is evident that English language has high status within the NUST society and serves as multiple functional roles.

As more and more people get educated, the local languages are surely diminishing and the English language, which is the sole official language in Namibia, gains popularity; however, the local language backgrounds will always affect Standard English. According to Mahmood (2009), “English is a living language and like all living organisms it keeps on changing, which has almost attained the status of the world language” (p. 113). In this regard, as time goes by, efforts can be made to standardise and codify this English variant in Namibia which can eventually be incorporated into a Namibian variant dictionary. Almost all the world scholars and researchers have acknowledged that English has now acquired a new identity in new socio-cultural settings which are autonomous; meaning that they are

independent, with new rules and principles, therefore the differences cannot be seen as mistakes or errors because they are autonomous.

Although this corpus linguistic research was only conducted in one institution, findings disclosed a significant and substantiation amount of data that assisted to meet the objectives set in this phenomenon. The English language has been nativised in many countries such as South Africa, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Kenya, Ghana, Nigeria, India and many more other countries. It is clear that the new variant has been created to form an identity that defines the Namibian NUST students. Their creativity has played a role in this process; however, there are some items that are translated directly from the English language such as “bossa” when you have respect for that person as in “boss”, “KeDecember” for parties occurring in December etc.

About Kachru’s concentric circles, the indigenous languages are stigmatised by the inner-circle countries. In the outer-circle countries, we find innovations of words and phrases which are now acceptable such as; chutney, shampoo, samosa and vuvuzela. These words have been now borrowed by the English language. Semantic shift is when existing words in the English language are given a new meaning and this is supported by the findings from the current study. Dabrowska (2016, p. 432) concluded that the English in Namibia has now gained a different position from stage two which is the Exonormative Stabilisation, to stage three which is the “Nativisation”, suggesting the result that is possibly aided by the South African English and more so English as an official language. Dabrowska (2016) argues that the English in Namibia is mutating into English as a second language status from that of English as a Foreign language. Buschfeld (2014) suggests otherwise, that due to the insufficient sociolinguistics data for English in Namibia and the lack of diachronic materials to support Dabrowska’s (2016) claims.

Therefore, the objectives of the study were fulfilled as follows:

- a. Investigation of the process of the nativisation of the English language at the Namibian University of Science and Technology

When the English language was first spoken by Namibian society, it surely faced the nativisation process as it was redefined and adjusted to the cultural framework. This lifelong process saw new words, phrases and sentences that were accumulated to suit the sociocultural nature of the Namibians students. It is a challenge to conclude on the basis of the results of this preliminary linguistic study but

it points out some of the trends prevailing in the English spoken at NUST by the Namibian students. No previous studies of nativisation of English language at NUST have used a corpus-based method, therefore this research made a prominent feature. The corpus linguistics research shows us that at this point a new English variant used and spoken at this higher learning institution does not impede communication. There are variants in the English spoken by Namibian students, which is the same case with regards to the Black South African English, British and American varieties of English. The English used by Namibian students at NUST is different from the Englishes used by countries from the inner circle; this is because of the influence of the indigenous languages and the purpose that the language serves on a pragmatic functional level. With the process of nativisation, the English language has passed through phases of imitations, adoptions and innovations. In Kachru's model, users of English in the inner circle are endo-normative; those in the Outer Circle are the norm-developing, while those in the Expanding Circle are exo-normative. Namibia belongs to the Outer circle and is therefore norm-developing, and the process of norm-development is another evolution for new Englishes.

The English language in Namibia enjoys a prestigious position although only a tiny fraction of the population consists of English first language speakers. For this reason, the indigenous languages in Namibia have a major effect on the nativisation of the English language. Creating a new native language is a process, however as long as it is adopted into a foreign environment, this process starts immediately, and occurs unconsciously. At the end of the day, the English spoken in Namibia is merely for achievement and successful intercultural communication and most students feel that it should be an acceptable variant because it forms a part of the Namibia culture and people associate with it. Students felt that the type of English they speak comes naturally and easily compared to the English taught in school. With this background, the majority of the participants supported the notion that Namibian English should be viewed as unique to Namibians and it is here to stay because new terms and phrases are coined and invented every day. Therefore, this accounts for the reason why we hear of Namlish, which is Namibian English. Within the context of Namibia being in the Outer circle which is the norm initiators, nativisation is inevitable; therefore, the features of Namlish, that is, English language usage that is peculiar to Namibians (Ola-Busari, 2014. p. 239).

b. Evaluate the various levels of nativisation of the English level at NUST

Linguists in Namibia still need to decide the spelling norms and what to adopt, regarding the new words coined and the vocabulary that is used in Namibian English. The study revealed that systematic

differences exist between the varieties. There is also a need for more studies of the orthography of Namibian English so as to regulate the spelling norm and fixed rules.

The results showed that some word formations and vocabulary are attributed to some of the local languages such as the Afrikaans words; lekker, nxa and mara. The nativised terms such as 'Bossa', 'keDecember', 'vibes', 'it is what it is', 'when you know you know' and 'doing us good' are some of the revamped English words that have now been made local on their meaning level, and pragmatic level.

The English language has been nativised in its grammar, semantics, syntax and pragmatics, thus acquiring the features of Namibian students at NUST. The lexicon level and new words have been formed through the speakers' creativity that suits their environment as well as their social and cultural background. The English language has been infused with the local languages. The rebirth has a Namibian NUST students' flavour and this has created a distinct new variety that people now call Namlish which is derived from "Namibian English". Nativisation occurs across all levels of social discourse; however, this study mainly focused on phonology, morphology and syntax. It is equally proof that there are some levels of variation between SE and Namibian English in respect of morphology and syntax, while at some linguistic levels, there are points of convergence.

There are shortcomings which arise when using interviews, especially the very fact that when a person is aware that he or she is being interviewed and observed it turns out to be a daunting obstacle to obtain casual speech. Nevertheless, the participant observation technique was incorporated. To gain cultural and linguistic understanding, the researcher had to create a natural setting. At NUST the English language has been nativised and the evidence is significant. The study has shown that some words and phrases have been nativised; however, more studies are needed in this field to gain a comprehensive knowledge of this phenomenon.

The formation of vocabulary needs to be studied in-depth to create language rules that can serve as a guide to all users. This can pave the way for the language to be later endorsed and recognised as an official variant specific to Namibia. Namibia, being neighbours with South Africa, its former coloniser, shows how many terms and words and phrases have been adopted into this variant and this can serve as an advantage to the Namibians. Both countries are Bantu speaking nations and linguistically they can connect. In the same way as there is Black South African English, the same can apply to Namibia.

- c. Investigate the effects of language contact at NUST concerning standard English

The English language enjoys a prestigious position within the Namibian society, despite the indigenous languages that have always been present. The English language serves as the official language in a non-English society, and this has surely brought the shift from its original norm to settle amongst the non-natives. Therefore, the effect of language contact has yielded different and prominent readjustments. This language has been recreated to communicate effectively and efficiently. The results showed that all Namibian students used Namibian English during their conversations and this variant is acceptable. The evidence of code-switching and code-mixing is the result of language contact with English and Namibian indigenous languages. The new English variant has distinct features which reside in linguistic choice brought forth by the characteristics in vocabulary (lexis), syntax, or style (creativity of the language), attributed to culture, race, and environment, as well as other sociocultural elements within the society. The effect of this language contact has created a phenomenon of code-switching between the indigenous languages and English within the sociolinguistics concept of code-usage and socio-cultural meaning.

Thus, the findings in this study appreciate the use of words, phrases and their meanings in the English used at NUST as they are useful in the sociolinguistic context of the Namibian society. The English language has been reshaped and is now performing the function and purpose for the users. Namibian English will create a sense of pride among its speakers and bring about national identity and boost confidence in Namibians when using the language. The new English spoken at NUST is mostly supported by its many local languages, thus it has created a new variant. People use local terms to express their needs or send their messages through employing communication and in the process local terms are incorporated. The utterances of the students contained several instances of English words, phrases and sentences which have been incorporated into their utterances in the indigenous languages; this has resulted in the morphological and syntactic structures in the hybrid utterances.

It has already been narrated that when a language comes in contact with people of a different language, there would surely be some distortions because these people will be unable to fully communicate in that new language which in this case is English. It is a fact that English is a second or even third language for most Namibians hence its usage by local people will vary significantly from that of the English-speaking world. Namibian English or Namlish as it's called, shares many similarities with South African English, with the influence of Afrikaans and other indigenous local languages. The constant switching from the indigenous language to English reveals some communicative strategies which some bilingual speakers use to effect differing shades of meaning in their utterances.

Therefore, it is fair to say that Namibians should feel comfortable using the variant that they now use. It is a fact that language develops and that once it leaves its native soil and merges with indigenous languages, its standard can never be the same. The Namibian society and the nation at large should thus take pride and own its unique language as language is part of national pride. The phonological, morphological and syntactical features previously described showed that a distinct of non-standard variety of English among the NUST Namibian students has emerged.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings derived from the data examined, the study has unwrapped important data and enlightening discussions, and as such several interesting areas still need to be explored. The English variant at NUST identifies with Namibian students and users should be proud of using it freely because it is who they are. It reflects the culture and society of the users; therefore, it should be embraced and be further developed. It is hoped that this research will help linguists to formulate Namibian English regarding its formality and orthography.

- a) Investigation of the process of the nativisation of the English language at the Namibian University of Science and Technology

The research recommends a thorough and in-depth study about the nativisation process of the English language in a different setting in Namibia for an in-depth understanding of this new variant.

It also recommends studies of a higher-order process to fully develop the understanding of this process since the phonology and morphological system of a language are important for the development of a languages orthography. The development of the orthography ensures its' continuous existence and its assertiveness as an independent language.

The English variant in Namibia exists and this has been evident; it is therefore imperative for linguists and sociolinguists to sort out acceptable items and those unacceptable in the usage, but also bearing in mind the cultural needs which may have caused some words and expressions to find their way into the lexicon of Namibian English.

- b) The evaluation of the various levels of nativisation of the level of English at NUST

Based on the findings derived from the research data, it is recommended that the English language should be well taught by well qualified English teachers who can create a solid English foundation. The

English foundation course at NUST should incorporate the phonological aspect of English to avoid the students from mispronunciation for such aspects /l/ and /r/, these two distinct sounds need to be thoroughly practised by students. Phonological awareness instruction should be incorporated into the NUST foundation course and such instruction should be embedded in vocabulary learning activities. The emphasis should be placed on the letter sound instead of the letter name as this will assist in pronouncing the letters and words accurately. Although it can pose a challenge to some owing to native language interference in the pronunciation of certain sounds, there should be some exceptions provided and this should apply to different ethnic groups in Namibia.

Moreover, students need to establish a sound knowledge base in understanding how words enter a language, what they consist and how they are formed by combining prefixes, suffixes and roots; this implies both standard English and the nativised English.

In addition, students should be introduced to a variety of morphological issues such as the concept of morpheme, its types, and the distinction between inflections and derivations. Another recommendation is learning the exceptions in English morphology as well as morphs, allomorphs and the pronunciation of morphemes. Furthermore, English language teachers should focus on the explicit teaching of morphological awareness as metalinguistics ability.

c) The effect of language contact at NUST on Standard English

Concerning the effect caused by the language contact relating to the Standard English, the research recommends the reciprocal influence between the English language and the indigenous languages. There should be more in-depth studies in the bilingual situation in Namibia at large that can focus on contrastive analysis of English and Namibian languages with regards to phonology, syntax and usage. Moreover, linguists should focus on the interference features of the indigenous languages found in the variants of English used by Namibian students.

Another recommendation is that there should be thorough focus on the dimensions of language interaction; this is to say that the analysis of the lexical and syntactic characteristics of the utterances of this English variant purportedly spoken in their native languages. There is also a need of the orthography and standard to preserve this variant without abandoning its social and cultural usage.

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ANNEXURE

ANNEXURE A.



NAMIBIA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Faculty of Human Sciences

Department of Communication

Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam

Kindly take time to read these questions below and respond to the question accordingly, the information will be solely used for the research purpose; A Corpus Linguistic Study of the Nativisation of the English Language at the Namibia University of Science and Technology. This questionnaire is intended to solicit information for the purpose of a Master thesis only. All your responses will remain confidential.

Objectives :

- investigate the process of the nativisation of the English language at the Namibian University of Science and Technology;
- evaluate the various levels of the nativisation of the English language at NUST, and
- investigate the effects of language contact at NUST concerning Standard English

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Code Name.....
2. Age.....
3. Sex.....
4. Race.....

5. Ethnicity.....
6. First language.....
7. Second language.....
8. Third language.....
9. Mother's place of origin.....
10. Father's ethnic group.....
11. Mother's ethnic group.....
12. Did you move from your original speech community Yes/ No
13. What is your new resident area?.....
14. Did your language change as a result of this migration? Yes/No
15. What are some of the changes that you have noted in relation to your language?

.....

.....

.....

16. What might be the causes of changes in your language?

.....

.....

.....

17. Languages that you can speak and their levels: (tick as appropriate)

Name of the Language	Poor	Fair	Good	V. Good	Excellent
1.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5.					
----	--	--	--	--	--

18. What is your first language?.....

19. On what occasions do you normally use your first language?

.....

.....

20. What language (s) do you speak at work?.....

21. What language (s) do you speak when you are at public gatherings?.....

Section B) English in Namibia

REPertoire

a) At what age did you start learning English?

.....

b) What language do you communicate with your peers outside classroom?

.....

c) What is your notion on nativisation and why do you think it occur?

.....

d) Is there a specific age or ethnic group of people you tend to use nativised words with?

.....

e) Do you sometimes use nativised words? (tick) Yes/ No

f) How would you describe your English reading level?

Show by way of ticking:

poor	
fair	

Good	
Very good	
Excellent	

g) Which other words do you get from English and use them when speaking in your own language?

.....

.....

.....

h) Do you sometimes use English words when speaking your language? If the answer is yes, why do you use English words rather than using those that are indigenous to your language?

.....

.....

.....

ANNEXURE B.



NAMIBIA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Faculty of Human Sciences

Department of Communication

Student Questionnaire (given to a different group of students)

Dear Sir/Madam

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SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Code Name.....
2. Age.....
3. Sex.....
4. Race.....
5. Ethnicity.....
6. First language.....
7. Second language.....
8. Third language.....

9. Mother's place of origin.....
10. Father's ethnic group.....
11. Mother's ethnic group.....
12. Did you move from your original speech community (tick) Yes/ No
13. What is your new resident area?.....

SECTION B:

Question 1. (The process of nativisation)

1. How would you explain a nativised word to a non-Namibian?
2. Why do you think Namibians nativised certain words?
3. How often would you say you used nativised words?

Question 2. (The Levels of Nativisation)

1. List down 5 nativised words you know
2. What are the common nativised sentences you often hear or make? List at least 6
3. List 8 nativised phrases you use.

Question 3. (The Effects of Language Contact against The Inner Circle)

1. What language do you often use and why?
2. How many languages do you know?
3. Do you think knowing more than one language has affected your English? If so, how?

ANNEXURE C.



NAMIBIA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Faculty of Human Sciences

Department of Communication

Dear Sir/Madam

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Focused Group Discussions

The Process of Nativisation

1. The discussion about the nativised words and their meanings?
2. Would you agree that Namibia should have its' own English variety and why?
3. What are the pros and cons of nativisation of the English language?

ANNEXURE D.



NAMIBIA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Faculty of Human Sciences

Department of Communication

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Observation checklist

Part A

	Yes	No
The usage of repetitions		
Code switching		
Using nativised words		
Mispronunciations of /r/ with /l/		
Usage of "Me I"		

Usage of I'm like or I was like		
The usage of the word "Bra"		

Checklist

Part B

	yes	no
Groups of mixed ethnic students		
Both males and female's interaction		
Other local languages used		
English used in most conversations with ease		
Students Codeswitching		
Students using nativised words		
Afrikaans language spoken		
Oshiwambo language spoken		
English language mixed with other local languages		
Evidence of language barrier		
Flow of the conversations		
Good English content		
Repetition of words		
The use of formal English		
Overuse of "-ing"		
Evidence of code mixing		

ANNEXURE E.



NAMIBIA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Faculty of Human Sciences

Department of Communication

Objectives :


- investigate the process of the nativisation of the English language at the Namibian University of Science and Technology;
- evaluate the various levels of the nativisation of the English language at NUST, and
- investigate the effects of language contact at NUST concerning Standard English

Forms of collecting data;

- Recordings, transcribing and tagging
- Observation; during, break-time at cafeteria, library, tuck-shop, classroom
- Content analysis, word meanings, sentence structure.

ANNEXURE F.

Ethical clearance


NAMIBIA UNIVERSITY
OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

FACULTY RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (F-REC)
DECISION: ETHICS APPROVAL

Ref: S007/2018
Student no.: 21209762
Date: 17 August 2018

RESEARCH TOPIC
A Corpus Linguistics Study of the Nativisation of the English Language at NUST

Researcher: Ms Nancy Kamati (Principal Investigator)
Supervisor: Dr Haileleul Zeleke Woldemariam (email: hwoldemariam@nust.na), NUST
Tel: +264 81 3509992
E-mail: natse24@gmail.com

Dear Ms Nancy Kamati,

The Faculty of Human Sciences Ethics Screening Committee (F-REC) of the Namibia University of Science and Technology reviewed your application for the above-mentioned research. The research as set out in the application has been approved.

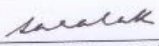
We would like to point out that you, as principal investigator, are obliged to:

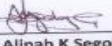
- maintain the ethical integrity of your research,
- adhere to the Research policy and ethical guidelines of NUST, and
- remain within the scope of your research proposal and supporting evidence as submitted to the F-REC.

Should any aspect of your research change from the information as presented to the F-REC, which could have an effect on the possibility of harm to any research subject, you are under the obligation to report it immediately to your supervisor or F-REC as applicable in writing. Should there be any uncertainty in this regard, you have to consult with the F-REC.

We wish you success with your research, and trust that it will make a positive contribution to the quest for knowledge at NUST.

Sincerely,


Prof Sarala Krishnamurthy
Acting Chairperson: F-REC
Tel: +264 61 207-2988/7
E-mail: skrishnamurthy@nust.na


Prof Alinah K Segobye
Dean: FoHS
Tel: +264 61 207-2418
E-mail: asegobye@nust.na

ANNEXURE G.

Transcription sample 1.

LECTURER/TUTOR'S COMMENTS: Need to categorise
~~Low words~~

She was just looking at me funny
 The taxi were just now there
 tell him I told him so.
 I see them girls were all relaxing
 yested the party was proper.
 Etse it was a joke.
 You always killing. E dear
 Basically I grew up in Music business
 Are you hearing me ngea!!
 I am at a loss of words.
 The drive very fast I was so scared.
 This will better be not funny
 We are interested in joining the gym, lol!
 I think they will not be ready by Friday
 Queen ngea is in charge.
 Her skin was radiant, what did she do.
 And the heat. Yoo it was too much.
 I managed to complete it. my dear!
 It is we putting them at risk!
 This group are getting away with murder
 Hi dear, it was my mum's today
 All these students were writing today?
 The test was not too bad.
 I was just at campus
 Guys listen, there is a new model added today.
 She looked super excited
 A night to remember.
 Halta it was not like that egg!
 I was like no man, it is too soon
 Apparently all groups are meeting today
 He will not be able to complete it now
 Lets all friends that get all cool
 who name taking selfie
 Will we be coming, ngea!!
 I was in the taxi, when you called.
 Yup it was great but so boring too.
 Aag Sherrine, nee man! Why only now

Lecturer/Tutor's name _____
 Lecturer/Tutor's Signature _____
 Date _____

It is what it is
 Let me pass it right here
 It's late man, what now?
 She's gone today.
 Come over for sure.
 These are my people
 Nature at its best
 you guys man!!
 Sat was lit!
 It's home time
 It's not easy, kashipe!!
 we are at it again
 They are all Shyris
 kashipe was nice was!!
 If you know you know
 It was an Epic night
 Chaps it was lit
 Positive vibes only.
 Game over my broer.
 Current Situation, last week.
 It's to die for his hair's
 Ice December Bossa W'alal's boy
 My Plan, I miss you.
 For the love of coffee, aggye
 Namibia for you, take
 Last night was crazy broer!!

you ...
 They all cooked as people
 only legends will know
 we are at it again
 Love witnesses can!
 If you see you see.

①	②
allegd	Gun
blis	ngorant
brood	birth day
blead.	ideas
fersty	izit
liber	elke
kiblar	aija
glooper	he
yank.	Die Toppie
cross	Alles Nxa.
tanna low	Agg nie
ptear	of course ja
	Veera:
	tsa's
	Jarope
	Jung.
②	③
Ze time	namu
braza	thati
wiz	These
ze	cannot
husband	posth.
hunk	afred
Bot	
ini	
offu	